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A BRIEF SURVEY OF
THE WORLD'S HISTORY

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BY

REV. H. G. ROGERS

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INTRODUCTION

TO THE READER

There was a time when quite young people could plough through Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, Russell's *Modern Europe*, and Alison's *History of Europe*, and I have seen an aged pauper sitting on the workhouse step pursuing day by day his study of Hall's *Contemplations on the Historical Passages of the Old and New Testaments*. To-day, comparatively few, young or old, have sufficient patience and perseverance, not to say interest, to go beyond an article, review, or short story, and so have no consecutive view even of short periods in the history of the race to which they belong. The following is an attempt to give such a view, by means of historical notes and chronological tables, to those who wish for it, in as interesting a manner as such a necessarily condensed form of it admits. My great doubt is whether I shall succeed in interesting those who have not mastered enough of the details already, or in raising fresh interest in those who have. I can but try, and am encouraged by the fact that there are multitudes like myself, who, after an average education at school and college, with more or less years of reading to follow, could not after all, without some such help as I am trying to supply, classify their knowledge, picked up piecemeal, or tell what was contemporaneous, say in Greece, Rome, Assyria, and Egypt, in B.C. 500, or in England, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy in A.D. 1500; and that these, not having time to do it for themselves, may be glad to have had it done for them.

Now if the reader will take these two epochs, B.C. 500 and A.D. 1500, as the bases for his dates, he will find that 500 years before the former date Solomon reigned at Jerusalem, and

the height of Israel's prosperity, and 500 years before Solomon, Moses was leading Israel out of Egypt, while yet another 500 years, and Abraham was about to migrate from Mesopotamia.

At B.C. 500 itself the Jews had settled again in Jerusalem after the Captivity, and the great Persian war, in which the Greeks came out so victorious, was about to commence. Five hundred years later Rome had arrived at the height of its power, the Republic having lasted 500 years and the Empire being about to last another 500.

Taking A.D. 1500 as the other leading date, the period 500 to 1500 includes what are called the Middle Ages, and at A.D. 1500 commences Modern History, with the discovery of America, the Reformation, the invention of printing, and the struggle for what is called the balance of power in European politics. Thus between B.C. 500 and A.D. 500 we have all that can be regarded as reliably known of Ancient History; almost all before is traditional only, all since Mediæval or Modern.

OUR PLAN

If by the aid of artificial light I were to throw upon a screen a panoramic view of a voyage round the world, you would see a magnificent succession of mountains, capes, seas, ports, plains, and capital cities, but the interior and more picturesque views of Swiss, Italian, African, American, Indian, Chinese scenery would require separate treatment and detached pictures. So in presenting a kind of panoramic view of the known history of the world I can only give you just the grand outline of the chief events, only the famous names, and the struggles of the nations which have made that history; the details, such as the habits and characteristics of peoples, the minor events, the biographies, the revolts and conspiracies, and petty wars which go to fill up that outline, the reader must supply for himself by individual reading. This he can do to some extent in one consecutive and interesting narrative in Sanderson's *Outlines of the World's History*. Miss

Longe's *Cameos from English History* is a fair example how details of the history of our own country can be filled up in an easy and gossiping fashion; while Creasy's *Fifteen Decisive Victories*, Macaulay's *Essays*, *The Greville Memoirs*, &c., are examples of more serious reading. Of course, large and authoritative standard histories are to be aimed at when time and circumstances allow, among the latter being the neighbourhood of a good Public Library, where real history instead of unreal fiction should be, but unfortunately is not, the chief attraction.

FIRST DIVISION, B.C. 2000–500

ANCIENT HISTORY (TRADITIONAL OR MONUMENTAL).

B.C.

2000. **ABRAHAM**.—Age of Babylonian or Chaldean, Egyptian, and Chinese Monarchies, and of Hebrew Patriarchs.
1500. **MOSES**.—Age of Babylonian or Chaldean, Egyptian, and Chinese Monarchies (*continued*), of Greek Kingdoms, and Hebrew Theocracy.
1000. **SOLOMON**.—Age of Assyrian, Chinese, and Persian Empires, and Hebrew Monarchy, of Athenian and Spartan Oligarchies.
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SECOND DIVISION, B.C. 500–A.D. 500

ANCIENT HISTORY (RECORDED)

B.C.

500. **DARIUS**.—Age of Persian, Chinese, and Greek Empires, and Roman Republic.

SECOND DIVISION (*Continued*)

ANCIENT HISTORY (RECORDED)

A.D.

1. **CHRIST**.—Christian Era begins; Age of Roman Empire; foundation of Frank and Gothic Kingdoms.
-

THIRD DIVISION, A.D. 500–1500

MIDDLE AGES

A.D.

500. **CLOVIS**.—Age of Frank and Saracenic Empires and German Kingdoms, commonly called Dark Ages; first part of Middle Ages.
 1000. **ROLLO**.—Middle Ages, or Transition Age; English, French, and Spanish Monarchies; German or Holy Roman Empire; transition to Modern History.
-

FOURTH DIVISION, A.D. 1500

MODERN HISTORY

A.D.

1500. **COLUMBUS**.—Modern History begins with the Reformation, and the Colonization of the New World; embraces in its course the English, French, Spanish, and other Monarchies; Russian, German, Turkish, and French Empires, and French Republic; America, North and South.

QUINCENTENNIAL PERIODS

I will now ask the reader to take a sheet of foolscap or of ordinary notepaper, open it, and at the top left corner of the left-hand page write B.C. 2000. Then at the bottom of the right-hand page write A.D. 2000. Between these two dates lies most that history can tell us of the romance of man. No doubt the cave dwellers and the lake dwellers had their own romances, but these did not affect the world at large; and if the brick libraries of Nineveh and Babylon have historic romances to reveal, or the hieroglyphics of the builders of the Pyramids or the Sphinx, they keep them as yet to themselves. Into these two pages, then, the student can cram as much as he likes of the world's history before and after Christ. Let him put A.D. 1 at the top of the right-hand page. Now let him double up the open sheet crosswise twice, and he will have divided his 4000 centuries into halves and quarters, *i.e.*, into periods of 500 years each.

Let him now write Abraham against B.C. 2000; at the first crease beneath it, B.C. 1500, Moses; at the second, B.C. 1000, Solomon; and at the third, B.C. 500, Darius. Against A.D. 1 write CHRIST; at the first crease under it, A.D. 500, Clovis; at the second, A.D. 1000, Rollo; and at the third, A.D. 1500, Columbus; and the reader will have at each quinquennial date a name which will remind him of some great evolution in history, although in some cases the name itself is of minor significance, and other, perhaps greater, names will be added later. It is becoming to write the name of CHRIST larger than any other, as "the Name at which every knee shall bow", and what event has the world ever seen more worthy than the Birth of the Jewish maiden's Child to mark through all time the turning-point in the history of human civilization? This is not a matter of faith, but a matter of

fact. You will notice also that up to B.C. 500 each name belongs to one of the Chosen People, and is there no romance in the fact that in modern times nations at variance can be, and we believe sometimes are, prevented from declaring war because the great mercantile heads of that same race decline to furnish the combatants with the sinews of war, so that the Call of Abraham at the beginning of the twentieth century B.C., and the money power of his descendants at the end of the nineteenth century, A.D., are connected by a thread which runs through all the intervening centuries of marvellous changes in the history of mankind!

While, however, up to B.C. 500 our chief interest lies in the Chosen People, we must remember that Egypt, China, Babylonia, and Assyria were well advanced in material civilization the whole of that time, and Greece and Rome were both emerging from a far rougher to a far higher state of culture even than they. Thus the Pyramids of Egypt were built before Abraham went down there (B.C. 2000?), and in the country he left behind him there were the wonderful temple of Belus at Babylon, and another great temple at Nineveh, remains of which exist to this day. Even China had its historic dynasties. The names of its rulers, as well as those of Babylonia, Assyria, and Egypt, have been preserved.

FIRST DIVISION

FIRST DIVISION

ARCHAIC HISTORY OF THREE PERIODS OF 500 YEARS
EACH B.C.

Fourth Period, B.C. 2000-1500

B.C.

2000. **ABRAHAM.** The Chaldean or Babylonian Mon-
archy, 2000-1000.

1921. Call of Abraham.

Greek Mythological Heroes.

Early Chinese Dynasties.

Hebrew Patriarchal Age.

Early Egyptian Dynasties.

1450. Patriarchs migrate to Egypt.

FOURTH QUINCENTENNIAL PERIOD B.C.

B.C. 2000-1500

We have put Abraham's name at the head of this period because he was born before B.C. 2000, and his well-known name seems best fitted to mark that point of time when more definite though traditional history begins. He belonged to the Semitic race, as did those dynasties of whom we have already spoken, except the Chinese, who were Mongolian. The Greeks, of whom we are going to speak presently, were Aryana, like most Europeans, and the Indians partly so. As we have already seen, when Abraham left Chaldea, Babylon had long been founded, and the great temple there, and Assur had gone forth from Chaldea and built Nineveh, and made it the capital of Assyria, to be afterwards beautified by Ninus, who gave his name to the city, as Assur had done to the kingdom, the beautiful and bewitching Semiramis adding, if not to its material glory, at least to its store of romantic legend.

The Bible tells us of a time when the "sons of God" intermarried with the "daughters of men", and Greek legend also says there was a time when heroes of great stature and strength, and of semi-divine origin, did mighty and questionable deeds. To this period, so fruitful in mythical stories, belong those of Jason sailing with his Argonauts to fetch the Golden Fleece from the other end of the Euxine, to which also Iphigeneia was afterwards transported when Diana saved her from being sacrificed for the benefit of the becalmed Greeks on their way to Troy; of Perseus, who travelled to the North Pole to fetch the head of Medusa; of Theseus, who slew the Minotaur; of Hercules and his labours; and of others of their kind from whom so many of the Homeric heroes were supposed to be descended. Of that, however, more presently

when we come to speak of the Greeks in the next period, though it should be noticed here that the siege of Troy is by some put so far back as 1800 or 2000 B.C. Long before these legendary times a narrow strip or strips of land undoubtedly at one time joined Europe and Asia, when the Black, Caspian, and Aral seas were more or less joined, and the Mediterranean itself had not broken through to the Atlantic. Perhaps, even at that early time, there was a chain of nations stretching from the east to the west of Asia, and overlapping with Europe and Africa. The original races in China, India, Bactriana, Chaldea, Asia Minor, Greece, and Egypt gradually developed into organized kingdoms, and at last, when the Greeks had settled in the lands in which we still find them, a great struggle arose between Europeans and Asiatics. But the Greeks were able to take their stand and roll back the Asiatic hosts for more than a thousand years, when once more Asia overflowed into Europe, and the Turks and other Mongols came to stay.

Two small countries, Greece and Britain, by their configuration and the indentations of their coasts, may be looked upon as miniature representations of the European and American continents, which with their peninsulas, gulfs, and islands have proved superior to Asia and Africa in capacity for civilization, and for the commercial and military enterprises which precede and accompany it.

When, say in 1921 B.C., Abraham left Chaldea to settle first in Mesopotamia, and then in Canaan, he left behind him a monarchy of Chaldea or Babylonia which flourished for 1000 years or more (2000-1000 B.C.). At last it became subject to Assyria, itself an offshoot from Babylonia and long its rival. Beyond the country to which Abraham wandered lay Egypt, a nation as ancient as the Chaldeans, though of a different race (Hamitic). Of this, which we call the Patriarchal Period of the Chosen People (1921-1500 B.C.), we need say no more.

FIRST DIVISION
(Continued)

FIRST DIVISION (*Continued*)

ARCHAIC HISTORY OF THREE PERIODS B.C. OF
500 YEARS EACH

Third Period, B.C. 1500-1000

B.C.

1500. **MOSES.**

1491. The Exodus. Petty Kings of Greece.
Rise of Assyrian Monarchy.

1200. Siege of Troy.

1100. Dorian Conquest of Peloponnesus.
Rise of Sparta and Athens.

1095. Saul, first King of Israel.

1050. Archons governing at Athens.

THIRD QUINCENTENNIAL PERIOD B.C.

B.C. 1500-1000

Hebrew Migration.—At the commencement of this period we come to the definite history of the Exodus under Moses, when the Israelites migrated from Egypt and settled in the land of Canaan under Joshua and the Judges (B.C. 1491-1095), a period of over 400 years, occupying nearly the whole of this period and completing the 1000 years of prosperity enjoyed by the Chaldean monarchy from the time of Abraham to the time of the Judges. According to tradition, a mixed population of 2,000,000 came out of Egypt, and during a space of forty years were so extinguished by pestilence, war, and internal strife that an entirely new generation, born to hardihood, self-defence, and self-reliance in the wilderness, and entirely free from the old associations of the slavery of their fathers, entered Canaan, and by degrees took possession of it. From a great deal that is uncertain and perplexing there comes out the one astonishing fact that a nation of determined people, sustained by faith in the protection and care of one God over all, took possession of a small tract of country about the size of Wales and held its position there, and sometimes governed its immediate neighbours, in spite of all the great empires around it, for nearly 1000 years (B.C. 1491-605).

Greek Migrations.—Simultaneously with this movement we have the settlement (according to Roman tradition) of Greek colonists (represented by Aeneas and his comrades in Virgil's *Aeneid*) in Italy, and in the Grecian peninsula the formation of the small Grecian states, which at the next period (1000-500) made their way by many a painful experience to the art of civilized and constitutional government, first under petty

kings or chieftains, and then under archons or presidents, forming codes of laws under men like Lycurgus at Sparta, and Draco and Solon at Athens, and giving lessons in the arts of government to nations not yet formed.

It was towards the end of this period (ab. B.C. 1004) that what is called the Dorian migration took place, i.e. the Dorians from northern central Greece poured into the Peloponnesus or southern peninsula, and founded Sparta, the citizens of which from that time ruled over the country round, keeping all political rights to themselves, compelling the country people to till the land, and holding a large number of them in cruel bondage (Helots). They themselves, while they did no manual labour, were all trained with such severity to such a state of hardihood that it has since become proverbial, but allowed no accumulation of wealth or indulgence in luxury.

The other great family of the Hellenes or Greeks (but the word Greek was unknown in those days), who formed perhaps the most energetic and intellectual branch of this Aryan race, were the Ionians. Their chief city of Athens became the great rival of Sparta, to which, in most respects, it formed a great contrast. In military, naval, and commercial enterprise as well as in freedom of thought and pursuit of arts, crafts, and literature, the Athenians excelled not only the Spartans but all the other nations of ancient history, and stamped their work and character on those of modern times as well.

By this time (B.C. 1100-1000) the twelve tribes of Israel had become sufficiently consolidated under the wise and gentle guidance of the prophet Samuel to desire a visible head over a united people, and elected Saul as their king. He was soon succeeded by the far greater David, who first made the Israelites really strong amid the surrounding peoples.

We noticed in the last period how late into historic times the Greek heroes were supposed to have lived. Here we may notice that the Anakim are stated to have existed in Joshua's time (1450 B.C.), and so would be contemporary with the descendants of Hercules and other Greek mythological personages. There was no doubt some good foundation for these.

legendary statements, and while we reject the legends as history, we value them as useful traditions which some day may find proof in archæological discovery, and in the meantime serve as an indication of national character. We do not believe all the stories, tragic or comic, about Sesostris, Napoleon, Samuel Wilberforce, or Rowland Hill, but the stories nevertheless reveal contemporary opinion of the persons indicated.

FIRST DIVISION
(Continued)

FIRST DIVISION (*Continued*)

ARCHAIC HISTORY OF THREE PERIODS B.C. OF
500 YEARS EACH

Second Period, B.C. 1000-500

B.C.

1000. **SOLOMON.** Hebrew Monarchy, 1095-588.
Babylonian Monarchy overthrown by
Assyria.
850. Lycurgus legislates at Sparta, 750-500.
Roman Monarchy.
731. Sennacherib.
721. Captivity of the Ten Tribes.
New Babylonian (or Chaldean) Em-
pire, 625-538.
610. Josiah slain by Pharaoh Necho.
607. Fall of Nineveh and of Assyrian Monarchy.
606. Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem.
599. First captivity of Judah.
586. Final captivity of Judah.
558. Foundation of Persia by Cyrus.
Persian Empire, 538-331.
538. Capture of Babylon by Persians.
Return of Jews from Babylon.
Sardis taken by Cyrus.
Ionian revolt.

SECOND QUINCENTENNIAL PERIOD B.C.

B.C. 1000-500

Hebrew Monarchy.—We are all familiar with the Bible account of “Solomon and all his glory”—the Temple glittering with gold in the sun—the visit of the Queen of Sheba and her “great train” from the land of spices on the Arabian coast of the Red Sea; but it may not have occurred to us that perhaps it was not so very long before this that the long siege of Troy—prolonged by the “wrath of Achilles”, and the divisions in the favouritism of the gods—was over, and the Argive chiefs (Argos was the leading city of that time) were returning to their homes—Ulysses wandering hither and thither till Neptune should relent—while their deeds and characters were waiting to be immortalized by Homer; and their romances, home life, and pursuits in peace and war, by land and sea, their religion, and the curious mixture of morals displayed by their heroes of semi-divine and human origin were to be more clearly brought before us six or eight centuries later in the plays of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. Nothing can be more charming than the opening of Euripides’ play of *Electra*, in which the daughter of Agamemnon, married to the peasant by her jealous stepfather, faithfully attends to his household wants, her noble virginity reverently approached by him only as a servant and not as a husband, while she waits for her lost brother Orestes to come and avenge the murder of her father; or the opening scene of the same writer’s play of *Ion*, in which the foundling brought up at Apollo’s temple and cared for by the good priestess, until he grows into the beautiful lad who sweeps the temple and collects the offerings, becomes recognized as the offspring of Apollo and the Queen, and succeeds to the throne of his

mother at Athens. The interest of these stories centres round Argos and Thebes at this time, be it noticed, as much as round Athens, the city of Theseus.

Greek States.—Let this be as it may, it helps us to get some idea of chronological order and grouping, and we may be quite sure that at the commencement of our Second Period B.C. the Ionian kingdom of Athens and the Dorian kingdom of Sparta, the former under one king, the latter under two kings and ephors, had been already flourishing for more centuries than the Jewish kings. The change from kings to archons as rulers of Athens took place in 1050, their rule becoming decennial in 753 and annual in 683. The severe legislation of Draco in 621 (proverbial ever since for drastic policy), and the wiser and more popular legislation of Solon in 594, helps to bring the history of Athens down to the democratic reforms of Cleisthenes in 507, and the end of our Second Period B.C.

In the meantime the oligarchical government of Sparta, fossilized as it were by Lycurgus in 850, did not follow the democratic tendency of Athenian politics, so that when Xerxes invaded Greece in 490 Sparta still had kings, and we have Leonidas, one of these kings, with his men guarding Thermopylae, and three leading citizen generals of Athens ready to meet the Persians at Marathon.

These two leading peoples, with their centres at Athens and Sparta, practically divide the supremacy in Greece and its colonies.

Babylonia.—Towards the end of this period an event took place which must be for ever memorable to those to whom the history of Israel is the history of God's own chosen people. To connect it and contemporary history we must first go back to the Chaldean or Babylonian monarchy which we saw (p. 16) flourishing almost all through our fourth and third periods, with its headquarters at Babylon, while Assyria had its chief centre at Nineveh. Now it happened that latterly Assyria gained the supremacy over Babylonia, while the Jewish monarchy became split up into the two kingdoms. Assyria

was called in from time to time to help one or other of the rival kings of Judah and Israel, and eventually absorbed them both, removing the ten tribes to the other side of the Euphrates in B.C. 721. Under the revived Babylonian empire the remnant of Jews at Jerusalem were removed in B.C. 586 to Babylon. This, the great captivity of the Jews, lasted till 538, when Cyrus, ruler of Persia, took Babylon from Belshazzar, and allowed the Jews to return and rebuild Jerusalem. The Persian Empire now takes the place of the Babylonian and Assyrian, until it will in its turn give way to the Greek Empire under Alexander. Thus at the end of our Second Period B.C. we find the Jews only lately returned from captivity, and Darius reigning at Babylon as successor to Cyrus. The connection between the reign of Cyrus and the great invasion of Greece by the Persians we may reserve to the next period.

Before, however, leaving this period, it will be interesting to notice that contemporaneously with the captivity of the Jews at Babylon, Solon, banished from Greece, went there, and we should suppose must have met, or been under the jurisdiction of, Daniel. In the very same century Confucius in China, and the Buddha (or prophet) in India, were giving to those countries the two great religions prevailing in Asia, and especially in China, Japan, and Burmah, to this day.

Certainly the Captivity and Return of the Jews (586 to 536) and the conquest of Assyria and Asia Minor by Cyrus seem to form a turning-point in ancient history, bringing the chief power of Asia into contact and presently into collision with the growing power of Greece in Europe, and making 500 almost as remarkable a date B.C. as 1500 is A.D., especially when we remember that coming after B.C. 500 the Persian war, the golden age of Pericles, and the Peloponnesian war occupy the succeeding century.

Hitherto the romance of history has lain mostly in the legends and mythology that necessarily precede its accurately recorded facts. Nevertheless, those facts now to be received as historical seem to me to be as full of romance as the more

doubtful traditions of earlier times, and the adage holds good that after all, in spite of critical scepticism, facts are stranger than fiction, and the sieges of Jerusalem, Athens, Carthage, and Rome as romantic as that of Troy.

SECOND DIVISION

SECOND DIVISION

ANCIENT HISTORY PROPER, B.C. 500–A.D. 500

First Period, B.C. 500–A.D. 1

B.C.

500. **DARIUS.** Roman Republic, 500–27.

499. Sardis burnt by Greeks.

490. Persian War. Battle of Marathon.

Golden Age of Pericles, 480–430.

480. Battle of Salamis.

479. Battles of Plataea and Mycale.

431–404. Peloponnesian War.

413. Athenian defeats at Syracuse.

404. Athens taken by Spartans.

Sparta supreme in Greece, 405–371.

Macedonian Monarchy, 338–146.

331. Battle of Arbela and end of Persian Empire.

Greek Empire of Alexander the Great,
336–323. His Dominions broken up
and ruled by Greek monarchs.

283. Rome supreme in North Italy.

264–241. First Punic War.

218–202. Second Punic War.

216. Battle of Cannae.

202. Battle of Zama.

149. Third Punic War.

146. Carthage destroyed.

146. Greece and North Africa made Roman Provinces.

133. Rome supreme in Spain.

44. Julius Caesar assassinated.

Roman Empire, B.C. 27–A.D. 476.

27. Augustus Caesar emperor.

9. Victory of Arminius.

4. Birth of Christ.

FIRST QUINCENTENNIAL PERIOD B.C.

B.C. 500—A.D. 1

Persian Empire.—Until nearly the fifth century the rulers of China, Assyria, Babylonia, and Egypt each had theoretically claimed universal empire, none being near enough to others to contest it. It was left to the Persians, a hardy race from the mountains of Western Persia, to put it almost into practical evidence by the actual subjugation of Babylonia and Assyria, Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor. Whatever credence we may give to the story of Croesus, the fabulously rich king of Lydia, consulting the oracle of Delphi, and of Solon's wise rebuke of what Americans would call his "swollen-headedness", we may take it as a fact that Lydia was a large, rich, and luxurious kingdom and that Cyrus dispossessed Croesus of his country and his wealth and retained him among his counsellors as one who had learnt wisdom by adversity. The revolt of the Ionian Colonies in Asia Minor, which had been subject to Croesus, and the burning of Sardis, the Lydian capital (B.C. 499), was the commencement of that glorious period in which Athenians and Spartans united to resist the Persian invaders.

Cyrus was killed in an expedition against the Scythians (B.C. 529) and was succeeded by Cambyses, who added Egypt (B.C. 525) to his empire. When the Ionian Colonies revolted, Darius Hystaspes, or Darius I, a great and able ruler, succeeded to the throne of Persia (B.C. 521), invaded Scythia (now Southern Russia), and subdued Thrace and Macedonia as well as the Greeks of Asia Minor.

Wars of Persia with Greece.—Darius was now free to punish the Athenians who had assisted the Ionian revolt, and after an unsuccessful expedition against northern Greece,

B.C. 492, he sent a more formidable expedition under Datis and Artaphernes in B.C. 490, when was fought on Athenian soil the first great decisive battle of Marathon. It must be remembered that up to this date no nation had successfully resisted the Persians, and the Greeks had themselves been defeated by them both in Egypt and northern Greece. Now the large army of the Persians, marching to the coast of Asia Minor, embarked on a large fleet, and guided by Hippias, the exiled tyrant of Athens, subdued island after island in the Grecian Archipelago, and landed at Marathon, where it was met by Miltiades and other Greek generals, who utterly routed it. Thus, as Sir E. Creasy says: "The day of Marathon is the critical epoch in the history of the two nations. It broke for ever the spell of Persian invincibility, which had paralysed men's minds. It generated among the Greeks the spirit which beat back Xerxes, and afterwards led on Xenophon, Agesilaus, and Alexander, in terrible retaliation, through their Asiatic campaigns. It secured for mankind the intellectual treasures of Athens, the growth of free institutions, the liberal enlightenment of the Western world, and the gradual ascendancy for many ages of the great principle of European civilization." But if "it influenced the whole future of human civilization" the victory of Marathon was only the first of many battles that had to be fought, and of sacrifices to be made, to secure so great a result.

After an interval of ten years (B.C. 480) Xerxes viewed from his throne on a slope facing the Bosphorus an army of 1,000,000 men, drawn from all quarters of his empire. As he looked on this wonderful spectacle, the very size and variety of the army perhaps constituting its weakness, he is said to have wept over the shortness of man's life. Having crossed the strait by a bridge of boats and accompanied by an immense navy, he presently viewed, with impotent rage, the slaughter of his invincibles before the pass of Thermopylae, when Leonidas and his brave 300, backed by 700 Thespians, died to a man, after the main army, betrayed by the wretched

Ephialtes, had retreated. Although Athens, from which the population had been wisely withdrawn by Themistocles, who commanded the Greek army, was occupied and burnt by the Persians, Xerxes had once more the grief to see from the shores of the bay of Salamis his fleet shattered and driven ashore by the Greek navy. Disheartened by such want of success he made his way back by land, leaving Mardonius with 300,000 men to winter in Thessaly. The following spring Mardonius again occupied and burnt Athens, but was finally defeated at Plataea (B.C. 479) by the Athenians under Aristides, and the Spartans under Pausanias, with vast losses in men and booty. On the very same day, in September 479, the Persians were defeated both by land and sea at Mycale on the coast of Asia Minor. Thus ended the Persian wars, which proved the superiority of a free people, well disciplined and drilled, and as much at home on the sea as on land, over vastly superior numbers of men of subjugated races forced to serve, many of whom had never seen the sea before—but they did more, they removed for the time all fear of an Asiatic invasion, of the new civilization being disastrously checked, and the growth of new and free institutions being destroyed by Eastern barbaric tyranny.

Golden Age of Athens.—Although the Peloponnesian war (between Athens and her allies and Sparta and her allies) did not begin for nearly fifty years after Plataea, there is an intimate connection between the two. The Athenians had been the chief victors in the Persian wars, but their city had twice been burned. The Spartans, jealous not without reason of the growing power of Athens, unreasonably insisted that its walls should not be rebuilt. The able but crafty Themistocles managed to baffle them for a time till the walls were complete. But the matter rankled, and the jealousy increased. Themistocles, and other great leaders of the Athenians, when banished, as most of the Athenian leaders were, were not above intriguing with Persia, and Pausanias, King of Sparta, perhaps in self-defence, did the same. But when Pericles came to the front

an entirely new era set in for Athens. A great statesman, general, orator, man of letters, and patron of art, he gave his name to this comparatively peaceful interval of fifty years. The golden age of Pericles it has ever since been called. The best sculpture the world has ever seen, the best oratory, dramatic poetry, and architecture, of ancient history, has made that half-century and the time immediately succeeding ever memorable.

The statues of Minerva and the sculptures of the Parthenon (Elgin Marbles) by Phidias—the Parthenon itself, of pure white marble, and the great temple of Jupiter, both at Athens, the temple of Diana at Ephesus, and the temple at Paestum in Italy—a statue by Polycletus which has given the “canon” or standard for human proportion ever since, the Quoit-thrower by Myron—the exquisite human form of Praxiteles’ statues, and the statue of Niobe and her children by Scopas a little later—the histories of Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon—the tragedies of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides—the comedies of Aristophanes—the Lyric poetry of Simonides and Pindar—the philosophy of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle—nearly all these belong to the age of Pericles, or the next half-century.

N.B.—The English reader can now enjoy the works of these writers in excellent translations published at low prices.

The Peloponnesian War.—The Peloponnesian War, which was so disastrous to Greece and fatal to the supremacy of Athens, although made memorable for ever by the history of Thucydides, is yet of little importance to the rest of the world, and we need only record three of its incidents. First, the plague at Athens, in which Pericles died, when the imminence of death caused utter recklessness amongst those still living; next, the revolutionary spirit which broke out at Corcyra (Corfu) and spread throughout the various states, accompanied by terrible cruelties, whichever party, democratic or oligarchical, gained the upper hand in each locality; and lastly, the fatal expedition of the Athenians to conquer Sicily, by which, on the very point of success, they lost both army

and navy, and finally their own city, taken by the Spartans under Lysander, B.C. 404. The war had lasted twenty-seven years and left Sparta supreme throughout Greece, until, inheriting the unpopularity of her fallen rival, she too succumbed, first to Thebes, and then, with Thebes and Athens, to Philip of Macedon.

In the interval between the taking of Athens, B.C. 404, and the Battle of Leuctra, B.C. 371, the thirty-four years in which Sparta was supreme in Greece, we have the record of that memorable expedition of the hired Greek army into Persia rendered famous by Xenophon's account of "The Retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks". Cyrus, satrap of Asia Minor, and younger brother of Artaxerxes II, hired the Greeks to assist him to wrest the throne from his brother, but was slain in the battle of Cunaxa, B.C. 401, and the Greeks were left to find their way back to Europe the best way they could (Xenophon acting as leader). The Spartans were at war with Persia for most of the remaining years of their supremacy.

Theban Supremacy.—In 376 the Athenians once more gained the upper hand at sea by a naval victory over the Spartans off Naxos, and from 378–371 Sparta struggled to resist the rising power of Thebes under Pelopidas and Epaminondas, by whom she was defeated first at Leuctra in B.C. 371 and lastly at Mantinea in 362, when Epaminondas was slain in the moment of victory. That remarkable man, aided by his friend Pelopidas, had raised Thebes during his lifetime to the position among the states of Greece formerly occupied in turn by Athens and Sparta.

Macedonian Supremacy under Alexander the Great.—In 336 B.C. a man appeared on the scene whose remarkable career altered not only the rivalries of the Greek states but the historical course of the whole civilized world. He was called to the throne of Macedonia by the assassination of his father, Philip, who had made himself supreme in Greece, as a consequence of the battle of Chaeronea, B.C. 338. Trained to arms under his father and in philosophy and politics by Aristotle, he first quelled an insurrection in his own country,

then marched unopposed throughout Greece, and at the age of twenty was chosen by the Confederate states (Sparta excepted) to lead the expedition against Persia which his father Philip had already begun to prepare. First, however, he led a successful expedition into the plain of the Danube, so as to leave no trouble behind him from that quarter, and on his return found Thebes in revolt. He simply wiped Thebes out of the map. The town, except the citadel, was razed, and the inhabitants sold into slavery.

Conquests of Alexander.—He was now free to march into Persia. "Far unlike the transient whirlwinds of Asiatic warfare, the advance of the Macedonian leader was no less deliberate than rapid; at every step the Greek power took root, and the language and civilization of Greece were planted from the shores of the Aegean to the banks of the Indus, from the Caspian to the Cataracts of the Nile, to exist actually for nearly a thousand years, and in their effects to endure for ever" (Arnold). In B.C. 334 he crossed the Hellespont and gained his first victory over the Persians at the River Granicus. In 333 he gained his next victory at Issus in Cilicia, where Darius III himself was defeated, and his wife and family taken captive. In 332 he took Tyre and Gaza and arrived in Egypt, where he was welcomed as a deliverer from the Persians. On the way he is supposed to have visited Jerusalem and to have been impressed by the priests and Temple. In 331, having first founded Alexandria, he marched up through Syria, and struck across to the Euphrates and the Tigris. Crossing these, he defeated Darius again, this time finally, at the battle of Arbela, though the Persians were six times more numerous than the Greeks. From B.C. 330 to 327 he was subjugating the whole of the Persian Empire between the Caspian Sea and India, and in the latter year he marched into India itself, defeating an Indian king, and so subdued the Punjaub. His soldiers were now weary even of victory, and declined to go farther; so, building ships on the spot, he divided his army, one part going down the Indus and along the coast by water, the other by land, till both arrived

at Susa in 324. He entered Babylon for the second time in 323, and there received the homage of the nations of the world. "They came from all the extremities of the earth to propitiate his anger, to celebrate his greatness, or to solicit his protection." Thus year by year he had achieved some great and enduring conquest, though Carthage, Spain, and Italy remained free from his control. While meditating an expedition in their direction he suddenly died at Babylon, of fever, B.C. 323, having in thirteen years of early life eclipsed the achievements of all other men of maturer years before or after him. Like Pericles he was a broad-minded statesman, tolerant, patron of everything calculated to further art and science, and, above all, international commerce, but, in addition, his personal energy, prowess, and consummate skill as a general make him unique in the history of the world, and his part in it reads more like a romance of fiction than a fact of abiding importance in the fortunes of mankind. Whether his death was caused by excess or by malaria there can be no doubt that his convivial familiarity with his subordinates, which more than once caused him the loss of a friend, and his self-indulgence in times of relaxation, in strange contrast to his constant deference to wiser men than himself, contributed to lower the otherwise high standard of his life, and to shorten his remarkable career.

Division of Alexander's Empire.—We cannot follow here in detail the careers of the generals who shared Alexander's empire, after a battle in which each fought for a kingdom. Two of them interest us, and their dynasties lasted some time. The Ptolemies in Egypt—that country was for the time the centre of learning and civilization—made Alexandria the metropolis of the world's commerce. The book of Euclid and the Septuagint translation of the Old Testament are among its lasting memorials. The Seleucidae, or family of Seleucus in Syria, produced Antiochus the Great, who came into collision with the Romans, and was dispossessed by them of most of Asia Minor; and Antiochus Epiphanes, who, by his tyranny and profanation of the temple at Jerusalem, B.C. 166,

caused the revolt headed by the Maccabees. Of the rest of the Empire it is sufficient to state here that after diverse struggles between various kings and leagues, and in particular of Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, and Philip of Macedon against Rome, Greece become a province of Rome in B.C. 146.

Rome.—It may be asked, but where was Rome all this time? We have already noticed that Alexander, before his early death, contemplated subduing the two remaining peninsulas, Italy and Spain, if indeed it was worth while to do so. Then we find Pyrrhus helping Tarentum, a Greek colony in Italy, against the Romans, and defeating them twice (B.C. 280, 279), but decisively beaten by them B.C. 275, and it was shortly after this that the conquest of Italy by the Romans was completed (B.C. 266) by the subjugation of all Southern Italy, Northern Italy having been already subdued in 283. This, therefore, seems a convenient point at which to take up the history of the Roman Republic. This had already been in existence since about B.C. 500, but had as yet had no influence beyond Italy, and indeed hardly beyond its own immediate neighbourhood, Rome not being supreme even in Central Italy till B.C. 290. It will be convenient to remember that the history of the Roman Republic covers almost this period, B.C. 500 to B.C. 27, and that of the Roman Empire the next period, B.C. 27 to A.D. 476, practically each 500 years.

Origin of Rome.—But Rome itself had been founded about B.C. 753, probably by an amalgamation of two, and, later on, of three, towns on adjacent hills, which were outposts of the Latin, Samnite, and Etruscan tribes. It will be found that the history of Rome is the history of a city rather than a country. It was the citizens of Rome, that is, men of various tribes or nationalities on whom Rome conferred her citizenship as soon as she had subjugated them to herself, who occupied for many hundreds of years a very small space in Central Italy, until by degrees they came to rule nearly the whole civilized world. Much longer than either of the two chief Greek states in developing, their history covers more than 1000 years, and though Greece has always influenced the

world there can be no doubt that Rome was, especially in its arts and literature, influenced by the shorter-lived Grecian political supremacy. From B.C. 753 to about B.C. 500 kings had ruled over Rome, but the last king, Tarquin the Proud, probably an Etruscan, was too much of a tyrant for them, so he was driven out, and a republic under two consuls was established. From that date until the Punic wars the history of Rome is mostly the history of the internal struggles between the Patricians, who seem to have been the original Roman families, like the aristocratic citizens of Athens or Sparta, and the Plebeians, who were the newer, and sometimes quite as noble, inhabitants of the city and its dependencies. Two tribunes were elected yearly to safeguard the rights of the Plebeians in 493, and the first Plebeian consul was elected in 366, intermarriages having been legalized so long before as 445. Little by little, from 500 to 286, the distinction between the two classes and the distinctive legal status of each were abolished, until it became a struggle simply between rich and poor.

Expansion of Rome.—No sooner had Rome become supreme throughout Italy than she came face to face with another power, like herself a city ruling over other cities. Carthage was now supreme in North Africa, Sardinia, Corsica, and part of Sicily. It was naturally in the latter that the Romans and Carthaginians must sooner or later come into collision, and in B.C. 264 began the First Punic War, and the struggle for the supremacy of the Mediterranean. The Carthaginians were Phoenicians, and had striven, as trading cities and countries always do, to have dominions beyond the sea. For a long time they were a worthy match for the Romans. It took three wars, between B.C. 264 and B.C. 146, before Carthage, like Thebes before her, was wiped out of the map. It was in the second of these wars that Hannibal made his memorable invasion into Italy from Africa, through Spain and over the Alps, till, after defeating the Romans in three great battles, and losing his brother Hasdrubal at the Metaurus, he was obliged to return to Africa, after holding the Romans at

bay for years, and was finally defeated by Scipio at Zama in 202. The names of Hamilcar, his son-in-law Hasdrubal, and his son Hannibal—greatest of the three—on the one side, and the two Scipios on the other, remain among those of the greatest generals in history, perhaps that of Hannibal as the greatest.

During the sixty years, however, between the battle of Zama, B.C. 202, and the final destruction of Carthage in 146, the Roman armies had crept round the Mediterranean. Spain had been nearly subdued by the younger Scipio in 205, while Hannibal was still in Italy, and was made into two Roman provinces in 133. Philip V of Macedon had allied himself to Hannibal in 213, but, after three short wars, Macedonia became a Roman province in 147. Antiochus the Great had had dealings with the Greeks in opposition to Rome, and in consequence lost most of Asia Minor. This was made into the kingdom of Pergamos, the last king of which bequeathed it to the Romans, and it became a Roman province in 133. By 191 the Gauls beyond the Po (Cisalpine Gauls), who had assisted Hannibal in his invasion of Italy, were finally subdued, and Venetia and Liguria became a part of Italy proper. Some Transalpine Gauls had, so far back as 390, raided Italy and threatened Rome. Now their turn was coming to be drawn, like their brethren in North Italy, into the Roman net. The south coast of Gaul, colonized by the Carthaginians, had naturally changed hands at the end of the Second Punic War. Thus by B.C. 133 Rome had taken possession of the whole Mediterranean coast except Egypt.

Decline of the Republic.—It is from that date that the decline of the Roman Republic is reckoned as beginning. The form of government which had suited a city and its dependencies on a moderate scale was wholly unsuited to regulate so extensive an agglomeration of states as now existed within Roman boundaries. The very privilege of Roman citizenship contributed to the fall of Rome, because the voting power became too cumbrous, and the admission of unworthy members lowered the character of the Roman

people. The murder of the Gracchi exactly marks this first decline. They took the part of the people and the so-called Allies (that is, the peoples in Italy allied with Rome but who were not allowed the franchise) against the aristocratic or oligarchical party. But it was not till B.C. 90 that the Social War, or war with these Allies (*Socii*), broke out in earnest and lasted for two years. After great carnage on both sides, the Allies gained at the end just what they had asked at the beginning, the rights of citizenship.

Marius and Sulla.—About this time, Marius, who was consul seven times, defeated and took captive Jugurtha, King of Numidia, and defeated the Cimbri and Teutons, who had swept down to Spain and Cisalpine Gaul. When, however, Mithridates, King of Pontus, south of the Black Sea, attacked and massacred the Romans in Asia Minor, it was Sulla rather than Marius who got the command and gained the laurels in the first war with him, as Pompey in the second. Presently we find Marius and Sulla the heads of two hostile parties, and a state of civil war, with alternate massacres and proscriptions. After the death of Marius his partisans were finally defeated at the Colline gate of Rome, B.C. 82, and his party throughout Italy was destroyed. Sulla was now dictator for about four years, when he resigned, and his colleague Pompey became the head of the party. Pompey, called the Great, had swept the Mediterranean of the pirates and rebels who infested it and hindered its commerce. He also reduced Pontus, Syria, and Palestine to obedience to Rome.

The Triumvirate.—Pompey, the soldier, now joined with Julius Caesar, the statesman, and Crassus, the capitalist, in forming the Triumvirate, who ruled practically the whole of the Roman possessions. Each, no doubt, aimed at individual supremacy. But in the end Caesar outmanœuvred Pompey, and having now gained his laurels as a soldier by his conquest of Gaul, in spite of prohibition by the Senate, "crossed the Rubicon", a little river running into the Adriatic, swept Pompey and his followers out of Italy, and finally defeated him at the battle of Pharsalia, in Thessaly, B.C. 48. Crassus

in the meantime was killed in an expedition against Parthia. Julius Caesar alone remained as supreme emperor.

Julius Caesar.—There are three men who stand out in history as world conquerors, Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Napoleon Bonaparte. The time was when they were generally esteemed its greatest heroes. But, much to the detriment of their fame, public opinion as to the inhumanity of war generally has increased such abhorrence as existed before of the inhumanity of each of these men that they are now regarded as the three great scourges rather than the three great heroes of their times, necessary scourges perhaps in the evolution of nations, yet undoubtedly scourges, such as the world hopes never to see again. And the most inhuman and callous of all, perhaps, was Julius Caesar. His own account of his Gallic wars is largely a journal of butchery. Nevertheless, a great statesman, a great general, a perfect gentleman in Roman society, cruel and perfidious in his treatment of the Gauls, clement and generous towards his fellow-citizens, in person tall, spare, and commanding, "as far as natural gifts went, Caesar was perhaps the greatest man that ever lived, being great in all ways, equally as soldier, statesman, and scholar". When, however, we contrast these three with, shall we say, the Buddha, who taught the Orientals that purity, peace, and tenderness are the road to eternal rest; to Columbus, who joined two hemispheres for the purpose of peaceful commerce; to John Howard, who spent his life in the reform of prisons and hospitals; and above all The CHRIST, who taught the world that self-sacrifice is better than ambition, and the way of the Cross, *i.e.* self-control and service of others, is the path to a perfect future life, who will venture to mention those three soldiers of fortune among the great benefactors of mankind?

What the reign of Julius Caesar would have been had he succeeded, as his nephew Caius Octavius did, in being recognized by the Senate as permanently sole and supreme Emperor, we may judge by his successes abroad and his undertakings at home. For the former he was given four

great triumphs for his victories in Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Africa. His rectification of the Calendar (which lasted till A.D. 1582), his plans to deepen the Tiber and drain the Pontine Marshes, to codify the laws, and many other useful projects, cut short by his death, are examples of the latter. His was indeed a strenuous life.

The tragedy of the Forum, where Caesar fell under the daggers of Brutus, Cassius, and other conspirators, is, thanks to Shakespeare, perhaps next to his landing in Britain, the best-known part of Pontan history to the ordinary Englishman. His fall was not the end of one-man government; it was only the beginning. Brutus and Cassius, whatever their motives, were too late to save the Republic. And so was Cicero's oratory.

Brutus and Cassius were defeated twice by Mark Antony and Octavius at Philippi, B.C. 42, and died by their own hands. Cicero suffered death with a vast number of all ranks who were placed on the proscribed list by the Second Triumvirate, Mark Antony, Caius Caesar Octavianus, and Lepidus. War soon broke out between the two former, Mark Antony and Cleopatra were defeated and died by their own hands. Lepidus retired from the contest, and Caius Caesar Octavianus, by careful observance of all the old Republican forms, obtained for himself alone all the offices of state, and under the title of Augustus became the first real Emperor of Rome, B.C. 27.

SECOND DIVISION
(Continued)

SECOND DIVISION (*Continued*)

ANCIENT HISTORY PROPER

Second Period, A^c.D. 1-500

A.D.

- 14. Death of Emperor Augustus.
- 70. Destruction of Jerusalem.
- 78-85. Agricola's Conquests in Britain.
- 98-117. Trajan Emperor.
- 138-180. Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius Emperors.
- 250. From this time onwards Goths, Vandals, Franks, and
other barbarians disturb the Empire.
- 306-337. Constantine the Great Emperor.
- 324. Christianity established as State religion.
- 379-395. Theodosius Emperor.
- 395. Empire divided into Eastern and Western.
- 410. Alaric takes Rome.
- 451. Defeat of Attila and Huns at Châlons.
- 476. Western Empire overthrown by Odoacer.

FIRST QUINCENTENNIAL PERIOD A.D.

A.D. 1-500

The Christian Era.—Among the Romans events were reckoned as occurring so many years after the foundation of the city in 753 B.C. In the sixth century after Christ's birth a beginning was made of reckoning from that great event as a starting point, the supposed year of the birth being called the year 1, corresponding with 754 from the building of Rome. It has long been known, however, that the year still called 1 A.D. was not the real year of Christ's birth, which probably took place four years earlier, and really in B.C. 4. The letters A.D. usually stand for *Anno Domini*, "in the year of the Lord", but may often be understood as meaning "after Christ", or "of the Christian era".

The Roman Empire.—A.D. 1 finds the Emperor Augustus Caesar at the height of human glory, and the city of Rome mistress of the world. No city has ever had so much right to claim the title of the Eternal City, from its unique position civil and ecclesiastical. We have seen how this came about. From first to last Rome was an aggressive power. As soon as she ceased to be aggressive she ceased to be a power. The Romans had two characteristics, to conquer and to rule. From the time that the first colonists (Aeneas and his comrades flying from Troy if you like) moved their camp from the seashore 15 miles up the Tiber, near enough to sail down to it in ships, and far enough to be safe from pirates—from that time the Romans were always conquering new territory or struggling to hold what they had conquered. For 1000 years, 500 as a Republic and 500 as an Empire, Rome ruled first Latins and then all the civilized world, and she had had her kings 250 years before that. Moreover, what is known

as "the Holy Roman Empire" arose by a sort of revival in Germany in 962, and lasted—but more in name than in reality—till A.D. 1806. The Romans were a cold-blooded nation, ruling with a rod of iron, and having no sympathy for the fallen, no compassion for the conquered. Mighty kings and tender virgins were alike dragged at the chariot wheels of their triumphal processions, and might be put to death after the pageant was over.

The Roman Empire under Augustus contained, besides all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, extensive inland regions, as in Southern Europe, bounded by the Rhine and Danube. Britain was added A.D. 78–85, and Dacia, north of the Danube, in 100–106, but this latter only for a time. But the "Augustan Age" vies with the "Age of Pericles" in precedence over all other ages in producing within the shortest periods the finest monuments of architecture and lasting masterpieces in art and literature. In addition to the wonderful aqueducts above and below ground which brought water to Rome from hills and streams miles away, and the basilicas, and porticoes, which had been built in the previous 300 years, we have now the immense Palace of the Caesars, the Forum, Colosseum, Pantheon, Temple of Jupiter in the Capitol, Circus, public baths, gardens, squares, all belonging to this period to be added to again later by the Arch of Titus, Column of Trajan, baths of Diocletian, &c.

In literature, Virgil's *Aeneid* and *Georgics*; Horace's *Odes*, *Epistles*, and *Satires*; Ovid's *Fasti* and *Metamorphoses*; the histories of Livy, and, later, Tacitus; the letters of the older and younger Pliny, with the earlier productions of Julius Caesar and Cicero—all these are to this day standard works of study in all our classical schools. Augustus himself was perhaps the ablest of all the emperors. Peace and personal safety, and public justice, encouragement of art, science, and literature, the conservation (in name at least) of all the old institutions, of senate, consuls, tribunes—a firm monarchical government along with these, without too much demonstration of it—all this made his reign "a Golden Age".

The greatest event which occurred in Augustus' reign, as already mentioned, was the birth of Jesus Christ, probably B.C. 4, but certainly wrongly dated the first year of the century. Augustus, of course, knew nothing of this; to him a great and deplorable event was the total destruction of some Roman legions under Varus, north of the Rhine, by the Germans under Arminius, which saved Germany for ever from Roman conquest.

First Century.—Augustus was succeeded by his nephew, Tiberius Claudius Caesar. • The emperors after Augustus may be classified almost with the centuries.

The **CLAUDIAN EMPERORS**, so called because more or less connected with Augustus and Claudius, including Tiberius Claudius, Caligula, Caius Claudius, and Nero, were on the whole good administrators, but ruled with iron, sometimes outrageously cruel, tyranny. Then after the three short reigns of Galba, Otho, and Vitellius came the **FLAVIAN EMPERORS**, called after Titus Flavius Vespasianus, and including Vespasian himself; his son Titus, who destroyed Jerusalem, A.D. 70, before he became emperor, and when emperor earned the title of "Delight of Mankind"; and Domitian, during whose reign Agricola completed the conquest of Britain, and the Christians suffered their second persecution (their first was, of course, under Nero). These three able rulers make up the first century to A.D. 96.

Second Century.—Then follows nearly a century of **GOOD EMPERORS**, Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Marcus Aurelius, followed by Commodus, son of Aurelius, but utterly bad, who died A.D. 192. Of these Trajan is counted the greatest, next to Augustus, of the Roman emperors. He added Dacia and Arabia Petraea to the empire, and gained considerable power over Persia and Armenia. A ubiquitous administrator, a soldier, a great builder, a lover of peace, he did much to establish a fixed code of laws so much desired by Julius Caesar. Antoninus Pius stands highest along with his successor, Marcus Aurelius, as models of what heathen rulers could be. The Oriental plague, which was to

sap the manhood of the empire and render it a prey to Northern vigour, broke out in the reign of the latter, but for which these two reigns form an oasis of tranquillity, happiness, and prosperity, in the desert of crimes, misery, and tyranny that preceded and followed the reigns of these five good emperors.

Third Century.—The third century from A.D. 192–284 was a period of desolation, disorder, and revolution. The emperors were mere puppets set up and overthrown by the army, and the Senate had to acquiesce. At times there were several pretenders at once, but fortunately the emperors of this time, real or pretenders, had their hands full in defending the frontiers from the growing audacity of the nations beyond them. The Persians again came on the scene. We now hear of the Goths and Franks. All within the Empire were called Romans, and many of the barbarians enlisted in the Roman armies and even became emperors. Some were good soldiers, as Septimius Severus and Alexander Severus. Decius was slain by the Goths; Valerian had hard work to keep the Franks, Goths, and Persians at bay, but Aurelian, a Pannonian, recovered most of the lost ground, and defeated and captured the famous Zenobia, “Queen of the East”, who reigned at Palmyra. Another Pannonian, Probus, was still more successful in freeing the Empire from the invaders. The Christians, though fearfully persecuted by some of the ablest emperors, made great headway during this time of disorder, their teaching no doubt encouraging new hopes in a time when the old religion was no longer believed in by the higher classes, and was now only a form. Diocletian, who became emperor in 284, made an important departure by appointing a co-emperor, with a Caesar under each emperor, the Empire being divided for administrative purposes into four parts, one emperor to succeed the other, and each to be succeeded by his own Caesar. As each resided in his own portion, Rome thus ceased to be the headquarters of any emperor. Diocletian resigned in 305, having signaled his last days by the worst of all the persecutions of the

Christians. Then this century, with more bloodshed and plague, ended in civil war.

Fourth Century.—Constantine began his reign at York in 306, and became sole emperor in 323. He and his father, Constantius, had made things as easy as they dared for the Christians in Gaul and Britain, and he himself became in name at any rate the first Christian emperor. He removed the centre of government altogether from Rome to Byzantium, which was called Constantinople after him. In 325 he called together the First General Council of the whole Christian Church at Nicaea in Bithynia. In his reign Christianity became the recognized religion of the Empire, in 324, and all pagan rites were absolutely forbidden about 390. This fourth century is remarkable (1) for the reigns of emperors whose almost sole occupation was to keep off the encroachments of the Visigoths or Western Goths and the Ostrogoths or Eastern Goths, who had been occupying the whole of central Europe from the Baltic to the Black Sea, and were now glad to escape the pressure of the Huns from north-east Asia by overrunning the northern portions of the Empire, and forming a Christian kingdom under Hermanaric in what is now called Hungary and Poland. Large numbers of Goths also settled south of the Danube. (2) For the number of celebrated churchmen, since called the Fathers of the Church, who in this and the previous century had come to the front when no one was permitted to think for himself in politics, and so by religious controversy an outlet for freedom of thought was allowed, combined as it was with strict obedience to the civil power. The names of Tertullian, Origen, Cyprian, Athanasius, Gregory Nazianzen, Basil, Ambrose, Chrysostom, Augustine, have been handed down as those of the great writers and orators of their time, and as the founders of Christian theology.

The Emperor Theodosius (379–395) somewhat stemmed the Gothic encroachment, made peace with them, and was rebuked by Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, for his massacre at Thessalonica. He was the last sole emperor; at his death the Empire was finally divided into those of East and West.

Fifth Century.—In the fifth century the weakness of both empires is shown by the fact that Rome was thrice taken and sacked, and the Eastern Empire was not strong enough to help. Alaric, King of the Visigoths, took and sacked Rome in 410; Genseric, King of the Vandals of Spain and Africa, took it in 455; and the destruction of art treasures and buildings wrought on that occasion gave the name of "vandalism" ever after to similar outrages; and the Suevi, a German tribe of plunderers, again took it in 472. Attila, the Hun, threatened the whole Western Empire, but fortunately was decisively beaten at Châlons in 451 by Theodoric, King of the Visigoths, aided by Aetius, a Roman general, and the Franks, and though he afterwards made a dash on Rome, which he nearly took, this important battle delivered the Roman-German population from the Turanian Huns. It was, however, a century of transformation. The Western Empire was fast breaking up. The Teutonic or German people had been gradually absorbed into the Christian and Roman civilization of the empires. Numbers of them had entered the Roman armies—their kings had become allies, tutored and aided by Roman officials, civil and military, much as some of our Indian princes are now; and when the last emperor of the west was overcome and deported by Odoacer, a German chief, in 476, new kingdoms of the Franks and Germans were ready to take the place of the old Roman Empire. Odoacer's kingdom stretched from the sources of the Rhine and Danube straight on to Sicily. The Roman army had been withdrawn from Britain early in the century, and the Romanized Britons fell an easy prey to the Angles and Saxons. From amid the confused waves and currents of rising and receding races there arose one great Ostrogoth, King Theodoric the Great, who, after defeating the German Odoacer, ruled over the Goths from the Atlantic to the Adriatic so peacefully and happily, allowing such freedom to the subdued Romans, Goths, and Franks, that it may be said that Italy at least never before, and never since till our own times, had such uninterrupted peace and prosperity (493–526). His kingdom, however, was to pass away

like those of the other Goths and Vandals, so that in 500 we find Clovis the Frank, the only ruler in western Europe, forming the beginnings of a kingdom which became an empire under Charles the Great, while the Franks gave their name to one of the most intelligent and cultivated of modern nations, France.

EXPLANATORY NOTE

From the close of the fifth century there begins that period of 1000 years, embracing our next two periods, which we call the Middle Ages. The first half (Second Period A.D.), called the Dark Ages chiefly because of the check to enlightenment and civilization caused by the incursion of Northern races in the earlier part, is also somewhat a dark time for the student, because it is a time of transition, and the new kingdoms of Europe are to gradually emerge out of the chaos caused by the breaking up of the Western Empire. We shall trace its wonderful influence for many centuries, and its glamour passes on to be shared between a temporal Teutonic empire and a spiritual or rather ecclesiastical empire vainly endeavouring to claim and maintain temporal power also. The beautiful story in which the peasant girl Geneviève twice saved Paris in the face of Huns and Franks by her calm courage and Christian influence affords a good illustration of the surrender of barbaric strength to the gentler power of Christian civilization, and also gives a link between our Second and Third Periods, because Hilperic, whom she bearded at his orgies, was father to Clovis, the first Christian Frankish king, whose name we have used to mark this transition. Clovis, Mohammed, and Charlemagne leave their mark on the first 500 years after the break up of the Roman Empire, and the Crusades and the rise of England, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy occupy the second.

THIRD DIVISION

THIRD DIVISION

THE MIDDLE AGES, A.D. 500-1500

The First or Dark Part of the Middle Ages, 500-1000^e

A.D.

500. **CLOVIS.** The Eastern or Byzantine Empire, 476-1453.

Justinian Emperor, 525-567.

Anglo - Saxon Kingdoms established in Britain, 450-600.

568. Lombards invade Italy.

569. Birth of Mohammed.

622. The Hegira.

Saracen undivided Empire, 622-749.

687. Pepin founds the Carlovingian Dynasty.

Frankish Empire of the West, 769-887.

732. Battle of Tours and defeat of Saracens.

800. Charlemagne (Charles the Great) crowned Emperor.

829. Egbert, first King over all England.

887. Frankish Empire divided into Frank (or French) and German.

Rise of German and French Kingdoms.

SECOND PERIOD A.D.

500-1000

Two great revolutions have happened in the political state and in the manners of the European nations. The first was occasioned by the progress of the Roman power; the second by the subversion of it (Robertson). It is at this second revolution we have now arrived.

At the opening of this period we find Theodoric the Ostrogoth ruling Italy and what is now Switzerland and south Germany; Clovis the Frank ruling what is now Holland, Belgium, and France; Spain and south Portugal a Visigoth kingdom; the Vandals at Carthage and neighbouring northern shores of Africa; while the Eastern Empire consists of those Greek and Oriental provinces which used to belong to Rome.

The Eastern Empire.—Justinian by his general Belisarius for a short time reclaimed the southern part of the Western Empire, North Africa and most of Spain, and for a much longer time the eastern portion of Italy, with Ravenna as the new centre of government, as yet exempt from the new flood of invasion. For the Lombards from Pannonia poured into Italy in 568 and took most of it, only Rome and Ravenna, South Italy and Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica remaining under the Empire. Venice also, amid the lagoons of which refugees from North Italy had taken refuge, first from the Huns and then from the Lombards, remained in touch with the Empire, and dates its interesting career, of which we shall hear more presently, from this period.

The Eastern Empire was at this time, indeed, active enough to deserve some fuller notice. It not only regained some of its western influence, but preserved, under men like the Emperors Zeno, Justinian, and Heraclius, what was left of learning and art after the barbaric flood; yet more, even gave to

after ages the solid foundation of modern civil law, though itself doomed to extinction in the long run by the Mohammedans in 1453. Justinian (527-565) built S. Sophia at Constantinople, and arranged a complete code of civil law called "The Institutes of Justinian". By his general Belisarius he destroyed the Vandal kingdom in North Africa, and regained the portions of the Western Empire mentioned above. Maurice (582-602) successfully kept back the Asiatic Avars, and Heraclius (602-641) won back all that the Persians under Chosroes had conquered in Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor.

Rise of Mohammedanism.—But the culminating point of interest in the early part of this period is the rise of the Mohammedan power. Mohammed, or Mahomet, was born at Mecca in 569 (the year after the Lombard invasion of Italy), and in less than two hundred years the Saracens took possession of all the southern shores of the Mediterranean, their conquests forming a crescent (their own emblem) of which one point rested on the Pyrenees and the other on the Black Sea. They were beaten back from Gaul by Charles Martel at the seven-days battle of Tours (732), and the Emperor Leo successfully defended Constantinople in a famous siege (716). These two checks kept back the Oriental invasion and gave time for the new kingdoms of Europe to be consolidated before the fall of Constantinople. Moreover, by this time, though the Saracens had conquered the whole of Persia, the west of India, and as far north as the Oxus, they were now divided into two Caliphates, of Cordova and Bagdad, and they broke up into still further divisions both territorial and ecclesiastical like their Christian rivals. The Moors (from Mauritania) in Spain for the next 700 years add much to the romance of this rather dull, because confused, part of our history. We may here mention the romantic Spanish hero Ruy Diaz, the "Cid"; though he belongs to the eleventh century, his renown being won chiefly by his victories over these Moors. The Semitic Saracens up to about 750 and the Moors, also Semitic, who succeeded them for 700 years, added immensely to the science, architecture, and commerce of this time. It

was the Mongolian Turks who in the thirteenth century conquered their Semitic co-religionists, that destroyed the civilization which flourished under Caliphs like Haroun al Rashid, and have been the curse of the East ever since. Polygamy, slavery, and despotism were ever the great curses of Islamism. These went far to neutralize its otherwise deep religious views of the relation of God and man, and have rendered almost every country conquered by the Mongolian Turk a desert. But it must be borne in mind that it was Islamism which first spread Eastern learning and art among the semi-barbarous races who succeeded the Romans in North Africa and Spain.

The Franks.—As we have seen, the Saracens were beaten back from Gaul by Charles Martel. In 486 the Franks under Clovis had established a kingdom called Francia, which took in part of Gaul, and what was afterwards Belgium, Holland, and part of western Germany, and formed a dynasty called Merovingian after Merwig, grandfather of Clovis. But at the death of Clovis his extensive kingdom was broken up, and was not united again until Pepin of Heristal, a "Mayor of the Palace", in 687 once more acquired the whole of the Frankish dominions, and so founded the Carlovingian dynasty, just 200 years after Clovis had founded that of the Merovingians. It was his son, Charles Martel, who saved western Europe from the Saracens. Charles's son, Pepin the Short, was crowned King of Francia by the Pope, and Pepin's son Charles, afterwards called the Great (or Charlemagne), by his "wonderful administrative power and much wisdom, insight, and largeness of view as a legislator", as well as by his military genius, founded a great western empire, and was eventually crowned Emperor of the West at Rome in A.D. 800 by Pope Leo III. Here then we see the beginnings of both the kingdoms of France and Germany and of the papal power. Once again the dominions of Charlemagne were broken up, and in 887 the Frankish Empire was finally divided into west and east, i.e. France and Germany.

Beginnings of France, Germany, and the Papal

Power.—The power of Germany began in 918 with the Saxon king, Henry I, the Fowler, while France continued more or less under the Carolingian dynasty, till in 987 Hugh Capet was elected king of France, whose dynasty lasted 350 years, but whose descendants reigned with few interruptions till 1848. This brings us to the history of our own country through the feudal subjects of the French kings, the Dukes of Normandy. But you will notice how the Frankish kings had acquired prestige by their connection with the Popes, who in return for their material aid against the Lombards had given them the blessing of the Church by crowning them as kings and bestowing the title of emperor on them and on the kings of Germany in their turn. Thus Leo the Great in the fifth century, Gregory the Great in the sixth, and Leo III in the eighth, gained great political power, which we shall find further increased by Hildebrand, the famous Gregory VII, in our next period (eleventh century).

Beginnings of England.—In 597 Gregory the Great sent over to Britain Augustine, who converted the Kentish King Ethelbert, then Bretwalda or chief of the Saxon kings. The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes had conquered the British, left defenceless by the withdrawal of the Roman soldiers, from about 450 onwards, and by the end of the sixth century became one people called Anglo-Saxons or English. The West Saxons gained the ascendancy, and Egbert, king of the West Saxons, was the first who ruled over all England (829), having other kings under him.

The most famous of the Anglo-Saxon Kings was Alfred, whose reign was sorely troubled by the Danish invaders. Towards the end of this period we find a Saxon princess, Edith, daughter of Edward the Elder, marrying Otto the Great, King of Germany, afterwards crowned Emperor of Germany at Rome. In 924 this Edward, the son of Alfred the Great, succeeded in uniting both Saxons and Danes in his kingdom. Edgar (959–975) was one of the most powerful of these kings, but in 994 both Olaf, King of the Northmen, and Sweyn, King of Denmark, invaded England. Olaf be-

came a Christian and returned home, but Sweyn and Canute his son both became Kings of England as well as Denmark.

Rise of Normandy.—The Northmen or Scandinavians, a Teutonic people (Aryan), had driven out the Finns and Laps (Turanian) and founded the kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. The Danes, subject at first to Charles the Great, soon began to make raids on the coasts of France in the reigns of his weak successors, and also on the coasts of England. In 913 Rolf or Rollo, an exiled Northman, made a settlement at Rouen, and was made Duke of the Normans or of Normandy by Charles the Simple, King of France, then reigning at Laon. Charles thus settled a long-standing difficulty, for the Northmen had laid siege to Paris in 885 but had been driven off by Count Odo, on that account elected King of France. Rollo was forefather of William the Conqueror.

Romance Languages.—Before closing the history of this period, in which we have seen the rise of France, England, and Germany, we should notice that the formation of the Romance or Latin languages of France, Spain, and Italy took place at this time also. They were simply the corruption of the original Latin of the empire by the common speech of the people who settled in those countries. The English language, on the other hand, was Teutonic but derived later a Roman or Latin element from the Norman-French.

Rise of the Slavonic States.—The emperors of the East had not only to resist the attacks of the Mohammedans in the east but of the Slavs or Slavonians in the north. These latter, having occupied a wide area in Eastern Europe, penetrated into territories before held by Germans, became Christian, and formed kingdoms in Russia, Poland, and Bohemia. It was to resist the Magyars of Hungary, a Mongolian or Turanian people from Asia, that a march or border state was formed, which eventually became first the Duchy and later the Empire of Austria.

Feudalism.—We may also notice here that feudalism spread over most of western Europe from the ninth to the

thirteenth centuries. It came naturally by the desire of weaker owners of land in those unsettled times to take shelter under the protection of stronger chiefs, who in their turn would rely on the support of their inferiors when wanted; but though the principle was the same, the system varied a good deal in different countries. While it supplied the place of a standing army for a country, as a whole it weakened the power of the emperors or kings by making the chief vassals too independent, a difficulty which William of Normandy overcame by obliging all the inferior vassals to swear fealty directly to himself.

THIRD DIVISION
(Continued)

THIRD DIVISION (*Continued*)

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY

The Second or Renaissance Part of the Middle Ages.

A.D.

1000. **ROLLO** (d. 931). The *Crusades*, 1099–1270.

1099. First *Crusade*.

1265–1321. Dante.

1270. Last *Crusade*.

1304–1374. Petrarch.

1315. Battle of Morgarten.

Swiss Independence.

1340–1400. Chaucer.

The Hundred Years' War with France,
1338–1453.

1386. Battle of Sempach.

1388. Battle of Nâfels.

1429. Joan d'Arc.

1434. Rise of the Medici in Florence.

The Renaissance, 1450–1550.

1453. End of Eastern Empire.

Rise of Russian Empire.

1471. Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella.

The Unification of Spain.

1492. Moors expelled from Spain. Discovery of America.

The Inquisition in Spain.

1499. Switzerland formally separated from Germany.

THIRD PERIOD A.D.

1000-1500

We have now arrived at the second half of mediæval history. The material progress of this time, specially in the development of literature and architecture as well as of municipal institutions, makes it a time of enlightenment compared with the previous five hundred years, but from the point of view of personal and religious liberty it may have been called as dark as ever. The Crusades, the rise of the Italian cities, of the Spanish kingdom, and the wars between England and France, followed by the Wars of the Roses in England, form the chief subjects of interest.

The Crusades.—The Crusades are spread over 270 years, or more than half the period we are now considering, and they touch more or less all the nations of Europe. I propose to take them first by themselves and follow the story of the nations afterwards. At the end of our last period the Eastern Empire had retired quite into the background except as a buffer state against the Mohammedans. The Crusades delayed the fall of the Empire, and gave it a new lease of life and of interest to Europe, until by the treachery and double dealing of its last emperors it turned the Crusaders against itself, and finally found itself left too weak and friendless to resist the attack on Constantinople which brought it to an end in 1453.

The First Crusade, preached by Peter the Hermit, and blessed by Pope Urban II (1096-9), directed the chivalry of a dying feudalism to the recovery of the oft-besieged city of Jerusalem, the Holy City, the very name of which links the names of Solomon and his successors in the eleventh century B.C. with the names of our Norman kings and their

contemporaries in the eleventh century A.D. The horde of lawless and low-class riffraff which accompanied and embarrassed the great body of military Crusaders massacred first the Jews of the Rhine and then many of the inhabitants of Hungary and Bulgaria, and were in turn massacred by them and by the Turks in Asia Minor. The main body, organized by Godfrey of Bouillon and composed of six strong armies from different parts of Europe, marched into Asia Minor and Syria, rolled back the Turks, took Nicæa and Antioch, and after two years' toil, took Jerusalem. At the end of a siege of forty days, on a Friday at three o'clock in the afternoon, Jerusalem was taken from the Calvary side, 70,000 Mussulmans were massacred, and the Jews were burnt in their synagogues. A Christian kingdom and other principalities were set up where the Saracens had formerly ruled.

The Second Crusade (fifty years afterwards), to relieve the Christians in Syria, preached by Bernard of Clairvaux and headed by Conrad III, Emperor of Germany, and Louis VII of France, was a total failure, mostly through the treachery of the Greek Emperor Manuel.

The Third Crusade (forty years later again), to recapture Jerusalem from the great and noble Saladin, interests us most because of the adventures of Richard Cœur de Lion, who, with Frederick Barbarossa, Emperor of Germany, and Philip Augustus, King of France, headed the expedition. Though Frederick took Iconium, and Richard and Philip Acre, Jerusalem was never reached, but by the courtesy of Saladin was henceforth open to pilgrims without molestation.

The Fourth Crusade (1202-4), which never went to Palestine at all, had the result of temporarily overthrowing the Greek Empire, a righteous punishment for its frequent treachery. Three more Crusades followed at intervals, with more or less success, until the eighth and last (1270), in which our Prince Edward, afterwards Edward I, took part with St. Louis of France. The latter died at Tunis and the former returned home after some slight success in Palestine. The chief results of the Crusades were (1) the enlargement of the

influence of the Popes, (2) the intercourse set up among European nations and their consequent enlightenment, (3) the weakening of the old feudal nobility, (4) the consequent rise of the middle classes, (5) a great impetus to learning, art, and commerce.

The Holy Roman Empire.—In the last period (500–1000) we saw Henry I (the Fowler) in 918 consolidating the kingdoms of the East Franks (Germany). He was succeeded by his son Otto the Great, who was the first king since Charlemagne to be crowned emperor by the Pope. From that time his successors were crowned “Emperor ever August of the Romans”. Although the seat of empire was moved to Constantinople by Constantine, and the Western Empire itself broken up in 476, yet the idea of a Roman Empire was carried on by the emperors of the East, and remained in the minds of the people of western Europe, till Charlemagne made it again something of a reality. At that time the Pope was regarded as the spiritual and the Emperor as the temporal head of the Empire. But Gregory VII (Hildebrand) claimed to be both, and when Henry IV, fifth in succession to Otto, refused to recognize the claim, he treated him as Pope Innocent III did our King John, and excommunicated him. Henry abjectly submitted to Gregory at Canossa, but on regaining his lost influence deposed the Pope and appointed another. This is a good specimen of how the pendulum swung between the emperors and popes, Guelphs and Ghibellines, for many years. The succeeding kings of Germany continued to be crowned as of right “Emperors of the Romans” until the beginning of the last century, but owing to their endeavours to control at once the states of Germany, Italy, and the Papacy, the empire was never a consolidated one. It was called the “Holy Roman Empire”, and lasted in name till the title was resigned by Francis II, 1806, and the title of Emperor or King of Germany was formally suppressed at the Congress of Vienna, 1815. Thus until the Prussian-Austrian war in 1866 Germany consisted of a varying number of semi-independent states and even cities under kings and dukes, some attached

to the Prussian House of the Hohenzollerns, and some to the Austrian House of Hapsburg, each of which had determined to build up solid empires of their own. We cannot here endeavour to follow the contests between the popes and the emperors in which the various states and cities of Germany and Italy were involved in the times of Frederick Barbarossa (1152-90) or his remarkable grandson Frederick II. First the Renaissance and then the Reformation practically put an end to all but the theory and title of the "Holy Roman Empire".

The Italian States.—Immense interest surrounds the story or stories of the Italian states at this period, for each state, and they were many, had its own history. We have already shown first the Huns and then the Lombards driving many refugees, both rich and poor, to find safety in the lagoons of the north-east Italian shores. So Venice became the great commercial and naval port of the Mediterranean. Her commerce with, and then her dependence on, first the Eastern, and then the Ottoman Empire, with a quarter for her merchants in Constantinople under both these regimes, made her the richest and most powerful of the minor states of Italy. Her government under the Council of Ten, and its president, the Doge, has given material for countless tales. Venice and her rival, Florence, were at one time the great money-lenders of Europe. The latter, the city of Dante and of Michael Angelo, under the Medici, and specially under Lorenzo the Magnificent, became the chief seat of the Renaissance (1450-1550). Milan, neighbour to both, and quarrelling in turn with each, first under the Visconti and then under the Sforza families, brought Germany and France into Italy with devastating results, and so fulfilled the warnings of the reforming monk, Savonarola. In the south, Sicily and Naples, taken by the Normans from the Saracens during the Crusades, passed in turn under the German Emperor Barbarossa, the French Charles of Anjou, and Spanish Pedro of Aragon. How young Conradin was executed by the French brought in by the Pope, and the French were exterminated in the Sicilian

Vespers; how Henry IV defied Pope Gregory, stood shivering three days in the snow at the door of the castle of Canossa, then dethroned the Pope, and finally begged for bread at the door of a church, are only instances of how in the history of these states fact is often stranger than fiction. The struggles around the Papal States, caused by the intrigues of the Popes, the reign of the Borgias and of the Medici, Pope Leo X, and the influence of Machiavelli are full of instruction, and will show us how a little later the larger European States learnt from the politics of the Italians the great principle of the balance of power.

Rise of Switzerland.—North of the Alps the Swiss gained their independence at this time. Brought under the rule of Charlemagne, and much prized by him, they came in time under the rule of the House of Hapsburg. The story of the tyranny of such governors as Gessler and Landesburg, the heroism of Tell and the Arnold family, is too well known to be repeated, though Tell is now regarded as a mythological personage. It is sufficient to record here that by the Battles of Morgarten, in 1315, called the Swiss Thermopylae, and Sempach, in 1386, where the brave Arnold gathered the spears in his arms to open a way in the Austrian ranks, followed by the battle of Näfels, the Swiss won that freedom which, except for a few years under Napoleon, they have retained ever since.

Rise of Spain and Portugal.—We must now turn to the Spanish peninsula. What has been going on in Spain all this time? The Moors, when we last read of them, had subdued all but the mountains in the north-west, and were introducing science and literature, unknown before to the Gothic inhabitants, building splendid palaces at Cordova and other cities, and with great moderation and toleration bringing Spain to a high pitch of civilization. But when, in the eleventh century, fanatical parties on both sides, and rebellions among the Moors themselves, caused appeals to be made from various quarters to Alphonso, King of Castile, Leon, and the Asturias, under whom fought the great Spanish champion, known as

the "Cid", little by little the Moors were driven to the south. The kingdoms of Castile, Aragon, Leon, and Portugal arose very much like the Italian States, with strong cities almost independent of the princes in whose territories they were situated. We find our Edward the Black Prince assisting Pedro, King of Castile, in 1366, against his brother, who had driven him out; Pedro, King of Aragon, going to the assistance of Naples and Sicily after the Sicilian Vespers in 1282; and Portugal turning the tables on the Saracens in North Africa, occupying Madeira and the Azores, and in time discovering the Cape of Good Hope and the way to India, 1486. The culminating point, however, was the marriage of Queen Isabella of Castile and Leon to Ferdinand, King of Aragon, 1471. The Moors were driven out of Spain on the capture of Cordova and Granada, 1492. Columbus was now encouraged in his adventurous voyages across the Atlantic, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal occupied almost the whole of the Spanish Peninsula, Navarre being the exception.

France.—The battle of Bouvines, 1214, in which Philip II of France fought for the rights of Prince Arthur against John of England and Otho of Germany, was the first in which soldiers from all parts of France joined together against a common foe, but the individual power of the feudal nobles was still too great for unity. St. Louis, 1226–70, did much to improve the condition of the lower classes; but the Hundred Years' War, 1338–1453, between France and England, so devastated the land that the peasants, maddened by famine and the Black Plague, broke into frightful excesses, and, though the rebellion was repressed, caused the nobles to combine for their own safety. The battles of Sluys and Poitiers, in 1340 and 1356, though galling to France, did little harm; but after the battle of Agincourt in 1415 Henry V held nearly the whole of France. It was at this juncture that Joan d'Arc rescued Orleans, and revived the spirit of France at the cost of her own life, 1429. The English had to retire from France, and that extraordinary man, Louis XI (1461–83) with his barber Olivier "le diable", his cook Pierre,

and hangman Tristan l'Hermite, achieved by craft and cruelty what his predecessors failed to achieve by force, and brought the nobles into obedience to the crown.

England.—In England the Wars of the Roses (1455–85) made such havoc among the feudal nobility that the Tudors, aided by the growing power of the middle classes of the towns, were able to crush all individual resistance, and great progress in trade and manufactures prepared the people for the wave of improvement passing over Europe, which is spoken of as the Renaissance.

The Renaissance.—This Renaissance or revival of civilization, including art and learning, freedom of thought, and more or less political liberty for the middle and lower orders, was most marked in the hundred years that followed the fall of Constantinople, 1453. It was the beginning of a new era. The restlessness and personal insecurity of the unsettled times of the Middle Ages had passed away. Men had time and opportunity to think for themselves and turn their attention to the things that make their surroundings bright and happy. At first the reaction caused by the influx of Greek scholars and the renewed circulation of ancient literature and art produced a return to pagan and worse than pagan vice and manner of life, from the Popes downwards—such vice as Savonarola denounced at Florence. But this again had its reaction in the great religious Reformation or Renaissance of spiritual life that followed close upon the Renaissance of mind and manners. In the meantime, both in aid of and in addition to the revival in art and literature, there were at this important epoch great inventions and discoveries such as those of printing, the magnetic needle, gunpowder, oil colours, glass-burning in colours, painting on canvas, the Copernican system of astronomy. For it was at this time that Copernicus (1473–1543) and, later, Galileo (1564–1642) were exploring the heavens, and Columbus and Vasco da Gama were exploring the seas. Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, Cimabue, Fra Angelico, were beautifying Italy, and Dante (1265–1321), Petrarch (1304–74), Boccaccio (1313–75), had long since won the ears of cultured Italians, as

Chaucer (1340–1400) did those of the English early in the Middle Ages. We must not forget, however, that these had been preceded by the scholars of religious philosophy called “the Schoolmen”, and their critics, such as St. Anselm, St. Bernard, Abelard, John of Salisbury, Bonaventura, Bradwardine, Thomas Aquinas, 1225–74, Duns Scotus, his opponent, who died 1308, and Roger Bacon, the inventor of gunpowder, who died in 1293. The Troubadours and Trouveurs had also their influence in cultivating the poetic taste of their times, and the Nibelungen Lied remains the great German epic poem of this period.

The troublous times of the earlier Middle Ages produced the monastic orders—the Benedictines so early as 529, the Cistercians in 1098, the Franciscans, 1210, the Dominicans, 1215; the great orders of religious Knights—the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem or Knight Hospitallers, and the Knights Templars, both in connection with the Crusades. The great military societies became the wealthiest and most powerful bodies in the states of Europe, till the kings either became Grand Masters themselves (as in Spain), or forcibly suppressed the brotherhoods, as in France and England, in order to strengthen their own position. But amidst the disorder and injustice caused by the feuds of the territorial magnates, societies, more or less secret, sprang up to secure justice and protection for all classes. The Holy Brotherhood maintained by the cities of Spain, and the Companions of Burgundy and the neighbouring provinces, are examples of these.

But it was not the religious or the secret societies that made much lasting impression on the progress of the nations. Robertson says: “It was a fundamental principle in the feudal system of policy, that no freeman could be subjected to new laws or taxes unless by his own consent”. Hence the overlords from the kings downward called their immediate vassals together from time to time to enact laws or impose taxes. Kings, to check the power of the barons, now granted “charters of community”, abolishing servitude and giving special privileges to their chief cities, and the barons, in return for a

money payment, did the same to the smaller towns in the fiefs, so that by a stroke of the pen, as it were, all citizens became freemen. The great council of each nation, consisting of barons or high ecclesiastics, whether called a Parliament or a Diet, Cortes, or States-General, became more and more representative, as for example in England, where in the thirteenth century Montfort secured for it a representative Parliament.

We have noticed the struggle for liberty and independence in Switzerland at the end of this same century. The very same struggle was going on about the same time in Scotland, with most important results for both North and South Britain. It raised the national character of the Scots and gave them importance by their alliance with France; and by fostering a love of liberty and enterprise in both nations, it fitted them after their friendly and constitutional union to go forward in creating the present world-wide British Empire.

FOURTH DIVISION

FOURTH DIVISION

MODERN HISTORY

A.D. 1500—Present Time

A.D.

1500. COLUMBUS—LUTHER.

Empire of Charles V in Europe and
America.

1520. Charles V crowned Emperor of Germany.

Rise of the Dutch Republic.

1556. Abdication of Charles V.

Rise of Sweden.

1589. Accession of Henry IV of France (House of Bourbon).

1598. Edict of Nantes.

1610–1643. Louis XIII of France. Richelieu virtual sovereign,
1624–1642.

1613. Accession of House of Romanoff (Russia).

1618–1648. Thirty Years' War.

England under the Stuarts.

1643–1715. Louis XIV of France.

1689–1725. Peter the Great of Russia.

1697–1718. Charles XII of Sweden.

1700–1713. Frederick I, first King of Prussia.

Rise of Prussia.

1701–1714. War of the Spanish Succession.

1704. Battle of Blenheim.

1709. Battle of Pultowa.

1740–1786. Frederick the Great of Prussia.

1756–1763. The Seven Years' War.

Beginning of Indian Empire.

1757. Battle of Plassey.

1759–1760. Conquest of Canada.

1776. American Independence, July 4.

United States of America.

FOURTH PERIOD A.D.

1500-1789

Sixteenth Century.—In February, 1500, was born a man who was destined to be the foremost statesman of his day in Europe. Of the Houses of Austria and Spain, and grandson of Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, Charles V inherited not only the kingdoms of Spain and the Two Sicilies, but also the Netherlands, and was in due time elected to be Emperor of Germany, defeating his rival, Francis I, who was born six years before (1494), and who also had sought the votes of the Electors. In 1491 was born Henry VIII of England, and on these three handsome and accomplished princes the eyes of all Europe were fixed for nearly half a century.

We have seen that in the middle of the previous century Isabella, Queen of Castile, had married Ferdinand, King of Aragon, that during their reign the Moors had been driven out of Spain, and Columbus had discovered America without knowing it. About the same time first Cosmo de Medici, then his son Lorenzo the Magnificent, had made Florence famous for the revival of learning and art and its power as a state amongst the other states of Italy—the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, the Republic of Venice, the Dukedom of Milan, and the Papal States. Now the reign of Charles V interests us not so much for his incessant wars, in which at one time he took his rival Francis captive at the battle of Pavia and carried him off to Spain, or for his splendid victory over the Moors and relief of 1000 Christian captives at Tunis, as for the beginning under Luther (born in 1483, died in 1546) of that wonderful movement which divided Germany into Catholic and Protestant States, and after various reverses of fortune resulted in procuring religious liberty in France by

the Edict of Nantes, 1598, and in Germany by the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648. Henry VIII, though remaining personally a Catholic, renounced the power of the Pope over the Kingdom and Church of England. He was therefore well fitted to hold the balance between the two Continental rivals, Charles and Francis, being alternately in the favour of the Catholic and the Protestant States. The confusion in politics caused by the new division in religion can be gathered from the fact that at one time the Catholic Emperor, supported by some of both Catholic and Protestant states of Germany, was opposed by the Catholic King of France, the Pope himself, most of the Protestant States of Germany, and even the head of the Mohammedans in Europe, together with the King of England, religiously Catholic, politically Protestant. So far did the interests of temporal power prevail over religious convictions! And so far, at any rate at first, was religion from being the chief factor in what were afterwards called the religious wars of Europe. To understand how rich this portion of our history is for the historical student, I have only to remind you that the conquests of Mexico by Cortez (1521), and Peru by Pizarro (1532); the political and religious power of the Inquisition and the Jesuits; the resistance of that power and of Spain and its Invincible Armada by the English, under Sir Francis Drake and others, in Elizabeth's reign; the founding of our first colonies in Newfoundland by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and in Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh; the colonization of Canada by the French—merit each a history to itself, and supply themes for endless books of adventures, real and fictitious, which the discovery of the printing press in the previous century made more and more possible as the use of machinery in printing became gradually developed.

It is interesting to notice that, just before 1500, Pope Julius II had laid the foundation of St. Peter's at Rome—a noble specimen of the architecture of the Renaissance—on the very spot, saturated with the blood of martyrs, where Nero's circus once stood.

When these three leaders, Charles, Francis, and Henry, so handsome in person as young men, so chivalrous in their actions, ambitious in their politics, and so favourable in their temperaments to the development of material progress, had passed away, the conflict still remained, in which Catherine de Medici, Queen Mary of England, Mary Queen of Scots, Elizabeth Queen of England, Charles IX of France, Henry of Navarre, and Philip II of Spain are all chief figures. The rise of the Dutch Republic, the toleration of Protestantism in Germany and even in France, the union of England and Scotland under James I, and the more or less definition of the kingdoms and states of Germany, Spain, France, and Italy were the outcome of this struggle of nations and factions in the sixteenth century. In America the discoveries of Columbus and Cabot, at the end of the fifteenth century, of a new hemisphere had already put in train that curious division by which Catholicism was established in the south and Protestantism in the north, as in Europe. When Luther died, 1546, the doctrine of the rights of reason had already gone far to inaugurate this division in both hemispheres.

The Dutch Republic.—The Netherlands, now Holland and Belgium, which had been inherited by Charles V, and at his resignation by Philip II, were goaded into rebellion by the latter's introduction of the Inquisition, as well as by his political tyranny in 1566. The revolt of the Netherlands resulted in the establishment of the Dutch Republic in 1579 by William the Silent, Prince of Orange, who was assassinated in 1584. When Philip II died in 1598 the vast dominions which he had inherited from his father, and which he had doubled by his conquest of Portugal, were reduced to Spain and Portugal in Europe and much weakened in other parts of the world.

England.—The defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 not only secured the independence of England for the time as a Protestant power, but gave her also command of the sea passage to India and China, and the East India Company obtained its charter in 1600.

The Turks.—In the earlier part of the sixteenth century the Turks had possessed themselves of Egypt, Syria, and Palestine, and under Soliman the Magnificent (1519–66) had taken Rhodes, a great part of Persia, and most of Hungary, penetrating to Vienna, where they were defeated by a very inferior force in 1529. But their worst check was by sea, in 1571, at Lepanto, where their fleet was annihilated.

Independence of Sweden.—Early in this century, too, Gustavus Vasa raised a successful insurrection in Sweden against Christian II (the Cruel), who ruled Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and Gustavus was elected King of Sweden in 1523 and crowned in 1528, when also the reformed religion was formally established there.

Rise of Russian Empire.—So far back as the ninth century the contending Slavonic tribes of Russia were brought into union by Ruric, a Scandinavian settler, and received Greek Christianity and civilization under Vladimir, but fell under the rule of the Mongols from Central Asia for two centuries and a half. These Mongols left little mark behind them when they were at last driven out by Ivan, Duke of Moscow, towards the end of the fifteenth century, but under Ivan III, the first to call himself Czar or Caesar, in the same century, and Ivan the Terrible in the sixteenth century (1529–84), Russia made great progress, Ivan being a correspondent of our Queen Elizabeth and encouraging commerce with England.

Shakespeare, Spenser, Sir Philip Sydney, Rabelais, Tasso, Albert Dürer, Correggio, Holbein, Poussin, adorn what we may call the Elizabethan or later Tudor age.

Seventeenth Century—The Thirty Years' War.—The seventeenth century begins with a renewal of the religious wars in Germany caused by the intolerance of the Emperor Ferdinand II. The "Thirty Years' War" as it was called (1618–48), though it began on religious ended entirely on political grounds. At first Ferdinand was successful by his generals, Wallenstein and Tilly; but when Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden entered the conflict this was all reversed. Finally, when France had joined in, for political reasons, the French

generals Turenne and Condé compelled Ferdinand to sue for terms, and the Peace of Westphalia was signed in 1648.

The last part of the Thirty Years' War had been fought, as already stated, not on religious but political grounds, and not in German territory, yet it left Germany practically broken up. Richelieu, whose policy it was to continue the war to enlarge France at the expense of the Spanish Netherlands, was succeeded by Mazarin, who followed in the same course to the end. The Elector of Brandenburg was the only German prince to get enlargement of territory; and he was now next in importance to the Emperor, and his successors became in due time kings of Prussia and emperors of Germany. Sweden, of course, gained largely, and by acquiring the southern shores of the Baltic became the chief power on that sea.

France.—So far the first half of this century has seen the power of France and the autocratic rule of its kings increased by Richelieu and Mazarin. The second half witnessed the consummation of that rule and the long reign of Louis XIV, the "Grand Monarque" (1643–1715). To still further enlarge his kingdom Louis attacked the Spanish Netherlands, and, though checked in his designs by England, Holland, and Sweden, retained the portion he had conquered. Later on he attacked Holland, but was opposed by William of Orange, grandson of William the Silent, and afterwards William III of England. William persuaded the Dutch to flood their lands. The French withdrew, but in the end they again secured some new territory. Once more Louis, quarrelling with the Pope, arrayed almost all Europe against him by an alliance with the Turks, and had to procure peace by a considerable loss of territory. By the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) the French Protestants were deprived of the privileges they had enjoyed, and France lost half a million of industrious citizens. Finally the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–14), in which Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Saxony gained the battles of Blenheim, Ramilies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, left France crippled and poverty-stricken, while Austria gained the Spanish Netherlands (re-

presented by the modern kingdom of Belgium), Naples, and Lombardy, and England retained Gibraltar. Thus sadly for France ended the reign of Louis XIV. In the history of nations as in that of individuals it often happens that in the excess of power or prosperity lies the seed of future ruin, and there can be no doubt the Revolution at the end of the eighteenth century was the outcome of the glory achieved for France by Richelieu, Mazarin, and Louis XIV in the seventeenth.

England.—In England the reigns of the Stuart kings, broken only by the Great Rebellion (1642–60) and ending with the Revolution of 1688, though alternately brilliant and sad, formed a transition period between the despotism of the Tudors and the constitutional freedom and immense prosperity of the next century under the Hanoverian monarchs.

It is remarkable that at a time when every able-bodied man in England and across the sea had to carry his sword, and yet hardly one great general arose, the men of pen and brush excelled—Lord Bacon, George Herbert, Ben Jonson, Milton, Fénelon, Racine, Dryden among the former; Rubens, Vandyke, Guido, Velasquez, Wouvermans, Salvator Rosa, Rembrandt, Sir P. Lely, Ruysdael, Murillo, Claude Lorraine, Teniers among the latter.

Eighteenth Century.—When James II of England lost his throne he became a pensioner of Louis XIV, and we are all aware how much the attempts of the Old and Young Pretenders to regain that throne added to the romance of English history at the beginning and near the middle of the eighteenth century. But suppose for one moment that the plans of Louis's generals to crush Holland, Prussia, and Austria had not been frustrated by the statesmanship and generalship of Marlborough, and that the Battle of Blenheim had gone the other way, then Louis's conception of a great Franco-Spanish empire, comprising France and Spain and all their dependencies in Europe (parts of Italy and Germany, &c.), together with most of North and South America, and all their other colonial possessions, would have been realized, the other nations of Europe would have been crippled and helpless against such

a gigantic power, and the restoration of the Stuarts and Roman Catholicism in England might have been reckoned upon with certainty.

Russia.—There was only one European nation which, given time, could have opposed itself to such a power. Russia had been rapidly advancing in every way, and now embraced one-third of the population of Europe. In 1709, Peter the Great, grandson of the first of the Romanoffs, crowned years of energetic effort to enlarge, improve, and consolidate Russia by crushing the power of Sweden at Pultowa, a town in southern Russia, and there Charles XII, hitherto so successful in more than holding his ground against his numerous enemies, lost for Sweden her position as a foremost nation in Europe, which had been won for her by Gustavus Adolphus, and which she has never regained. The provinces east of the Baltic were taken from her, and Russia for the first time occupied a leading place among the nations of Europe. As Peter the Great had extended the Russian boundaries in the north at the beginning of the century, so Catherine II extended them towards the end of the century in the west by the partition of Poland, in the south by repeated victories over the Turks and Tartars of southern Russia, and by the acquisition of the Crimea and other territory, as well as becoming by treaty rights protectress of the Greek Church in Turkey.

Three Eighteenth-century States.—The eighteenth century saw the rise of three new states or powers in the three continents of Europe, America, and Asia.

1. In Europe the kingdom of Prussia became a first-class power. Originally a poor and barren track of sand and forest, Brandenburg was conferred by the Emperor Sigismund on the noble family of the Hohenzollerns. One of these obtained from the King of Poland the duchy of Prussia, and in 1657 Frederick William I, the Great Elector, made himself independent of that kingdom. His son, Frederick, became the first King of Prussia, though treated with scorn by the heads of older powers, but his grandson, Frederick William II, amassed great treasure, and trained to perfection an army of 200,000

men, and with unwearied care developed all the resources of the country. All this was inherited by his son, one of the most remarkable men of modern times, Frederick the Great. By the war of the Austrian Succession Frederick gained Silesia, and then had to fight for the very existence of Prussia against a still greater combination of powers than did Maria Theresa in the previous struggle. The result of this, the Seven Years' War, was to leave Prussia a first-rate power in Europe, in spite of reverses which would have crushed the spirit of most leaders and most nations.

2. In 1789 Washington was proclaimed the first President of the United States of America after a revolutionary struggle lasting from 1775 to 1783, independence of Britain being declared on July 4, 1776. Captured from the French (1757-60), Canada remained in the possession of Britain.

3. During the wars of the Austrian Succession, and the Seven Years' War, and even during the intervals of peace in Europe, Britain and France were constantly at war in India, competing for settlements or in support of rival native rulers. But it was by the great victory of Plassey, in 1757, that Clive laid the foundations of our present Indian Empire, though for many years the government and British army of India were in the hands of the East India Company under a Board of Control appointed by the Home Government in 1784. Many of our greatest generals gained their first laurels in India, notably Clive, Napier, Wellington, and Sir Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde). Warren Hastings was the most noted of the Governors-general, and his long trial before the House of Lords is one of the most remarkable on record. Enormous additions to British territory were made by the genius of Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley, while governor, and under Lord Dalhousie and others later on. A mutiny of the Sepoys in India took place in 1857, exactly one hundred years after Plassey, and was suppressed by Sir Colin Campbell in the following year, which led to "John Company" being dissolved in 1858, and Queen Victoria being declared Empress of India in 1877.

FOURTH DIVISION
(Continued)

FOURTH DIVISION (*Continued*)

MODERN HISTORY

A.D. 1500–Present Time

A.D.

1789. French Revolution begins.

1792. France declared a Republic.

1793. French Revolutionary War.

1804–1815. Napoleonic War.

French Empire under Napoleon I.

1805. Battle of Trafalgar.

1805. Battle of Austerlitz and Peace of Presburg.

1812. Retreat from Moscow.

1815. Battle of Waterloo.

Monarchy restored in France.

1848. Overthrow of French Monarchy.

Revolutionary movements in Prussia, Austria, Italy, and elsewhere.

1851. Second French Empire.

1854–1856. Crimean War.

1857–1858. Indian Mutiny.

1861–1865. American Civil War.

1864. Austria and Prussia attack Denmark.

1866. Austrian-Prussian War.

1870–1871. Franco-German War.

Second French Republic.

1877–1878. Russian-Turkish War.

1904–1905. Russian-Japanese War.

FOURTH PERIOD A.D.

1789—PRESENT TIME

French Revolution.—The century which had been so prosperous for England, Prussia, and Russia, in spite of reverses to each, ended gloomily for all the European powers. France, whose people had been taxed to the utmost for the benefit of the nobles and clergy, was the centre of the disturbance. It is difficult to follow the rapid changes of government in that country caused by the Revolution which broke out in 1789. Finance ministers of great ability had endeavoured to overcome the money difficulty, and at last a States-General or National Parliament was called, and might have succeeded in forming a constitution had not the court party persuaded Louis XVI to bring troops, including German and Swiss Guards, to overawe the people. The latter rose, took the Bastille, and formed a National Guard. From that time the royal family were virtually prisoners, and excesses broke out throughout the country. Revolutionary governments were formed in quick succession. In 1791 the National Assembly transferred its functions to a Legislative Assembly. This in its turn made way for a National Convention, while the Paris City Commune took matters there into their own hands. Hundreds were executed by its orders. Prussia and Austria came to the rescue of the nobles, but General Dumouriez won at Valmy (1793) the first Republican victory, and the revolutionary wars began which overran Europe. In 1793 the King and Queen were both executed. The chief power passed to the Committee of Public Safety till the quarrels and excesses of the leaders led to the assassination of Marat by Charlotte Corday, and the execution of Danton and Robespierre. A Directory of five, which now endeavoured to bring back the

nation to law and order, did little good, until Napoleon Bonaparte, who had led the armies of the Republic so victoriously to Milan and Vienna, was made First Consul (1799). His extraordinary career belongs to the next century. No doubt the excessive taxation of the middle and lower classes, and the extravagances of the court and oppression of the nobles, were the immediate causes of the revolution, but the return of soldiers from America, who had witnessed the success of revolution there, and the general spread of republican sentiments, had also a good deal to do with it.

Napoleon Bonaparte.—The succession of Napoleon's wars is almost as difficult to follow as that of the revolutionary governments. He became emperor in 1804, and in 1805 his preparations to invade England were brought to nothing by the Battle of Trafalgar. It was well for Britain that she had two of her greatest sons just then at her side—Nelson—

Thine island loves thee well, thou famous man,
The greatest sailor since the world began,

and Wellington—

For this is England's greatest son;
He that gained a hundred fights,
Nor ever lost an English gun.

Napoleon's resistance to the attacks of Austria and Russia ended in the Battle of Austerlitz in the same year, and the Peace of Presburg. It was in connection with this treaty that the Emperor Francis resigned the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire (see p. 67). Prussia's attempt to check Napoleon with the help of Russia was frustrated by his victory at Jena (1806) and the occupation of Berlin, where he dictated terms to nearly all Europe. Russia was defeated at Eylau and Friedland, and accepted the Treaty of Tilsit (1807). Napoleon was now at the height of his power. His brothers—Joseph, Louis, and Jerome—were made respectively kings of Naples, Holland, and Westphalia. By 1810 almost all Europe was at his feet. France itself, however,

was benefiting by his rule. The system of municipal government by prefects—the Code Napoleon—the Legion of Honour—the Art Gallery of the Louvre—a splendid system of high-roads and canals, all these remain to-day as monuments of his rule. Yet it was his quarrel with the small country of Portugal because she refused to obey the Berlin Decrees forbidding commercial intercourse with Britain, and his invasion of Spain, that led to the Peninsular War (1808–14) and his ultimate downfall. Austria took advantage of that war to take the field again, but was defeated at Wagram (1809), and Russia, disobeying the Decree, was invaded by half a million of men under Napoleon himself. The disastrous retreat from Moscow (1812) was followed by an attack by Russia, Prussia, Austria, Britain, and Sweden. Napoleon was defeated at Leipsic (1813), and the allies the next year entered Paris (1814). Louis XVIII was placed on the throne and Napoleon exiled to Elba, from which he soon escaped, only to be defeated at Waterloo (1815), and sent to St. Helena as a prisoner, where he died of cancer, 1821.

More French Revolution.—In 1830 a three days' revolution dethroned Charles X, who had succeeded Louis XVIII, and Louis Philippe, the Citizen King, was put in his place. But neither the Bourbons nor the Orleanists had learned wisdom by adversity, and Louis Philippe succumbed to the revolutionary wave which swept over Europe in 1848.

Second French Empire.—In 1851 Louis Napoleon made himself emperor by a coup d'état, and in 1853 persuaded England to join France in resisting the invasion of Turkey by Russia. The Crimean War, in which the battles of Alma, Balaclava, and Inkerman, and the siege of Sebastopol were the chief incidents, lasted from 1854 to 1856. After this Napoleon III was instrumental in driving the Austrians out of Italy, and helped the Sardinians to win the battles of Magenta and Solferino (but grabbed from Italy Savoy and Nice), while Garibaldi took Naples, and delivered other petty states in Italy from their tyrannical rulers, so that under the wise guidance of Cavour, Victor Emmanuel soon reigned over

a united Italy, Rome itself being occupied in 1871. Napoleon III continued to reign with fair prosperity and success until 1870, when, by the surrender of Sedan (see below), and the revolution in Paris, he lost his throne, and died an exile in England, 1873. After the suppression of the Commune in Paris, France settled down to Republican government, which has worked with uninterrupted success ever since.

Latest European Wars.—It was the turn of the two powers who had suffered most in opposing Bonaparte to take a foremost position in Europe. Prussia and Austria had been leading states in the confederation of all the German states (1815). In 1864 Prussia attacked Denmark and took from her Schleswig-Holstein, but very soon Prussia and Austria quarrelled, the German confederation was dissolved, war was declared, and at the end of the Seven Weeks' War (1866), by her defeat at Sadowa, Austria lost all share in the new confederation, and her Venetian possessions were taken from her and given to the Italians, who had assisted Prussia, and whom she had defeated. She, however, afterwards was allowed to absorb Bosnia and Herzegovina as compensation for her neutrality in the Russo-Turkish War in 1878. Prussia was now practically mistress of northern Germany, and it only needed another Spanish Succession question and a consequent declaration of war by Napoleon III, to bring about the unification of Germany. Utterly defeated by the diplomacy of Bismarck and the generalship of Moltke, France, like Austria before her, was soon overrun by the German armies; the Emperor surrendered at Sedan, Paris was besieged and taken, the King of Prussia, William I, was proclaimed German Emperor at Versailles, France lost the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and a war lasting hardly eight months (1870-71) placed Germany alongside Russia and Austria as one of the great empires of Europe.

America.—In this last war Germany had brought 1,000,000 men into the field and France 1,500,000, and terrible as we consider the loss of life in that and the Austrian-Prussian War, we on this side of the Atlantic have probably never realized

what the American Civil War (1861-65) cost that country in the lives of her citizen armies and in treasure. The war itself originated in long-smouldering differences between the Northern and Southern States on the questions of slavery, free trade, and state rights, including the right of a state to leave the Union, besides no doubt differences in character and "class" habits. Seven of the Southern States formally seceded and set up a separate government of "The Confederate States of America", under Jefferson Davis. After the seizure of Fort Sumner by the Confederates, which act really commenced the war, four more states joined the Confederation. On the other hand, the new President, Abraham Lincoln, took prompt measures on behalf of the Union, the adherents of which were now called Federals. The names of Lee, "Stonewall" Jackson, Beauregard, and Stuart on the Confederate side, and M'Clellan, Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan on that of the Federals, will never be forgotten, but the glory of their achievements will ever be clouded by the awful havoc that accompanied their heroic struggles for victory. Though, after the fall of Richmond and the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court-house, the clemency and generosity of the victorious North and the appreciative and self-respecting submission of the South have had a lasting effect in the closer union of the states as a solid nation, this result was only achieved at the cost of 1,000,000 men, killed and wounded, and 600,000,000 pounds sterling of money.

In the ten years inclusive, 1861-71, we have the dismal record of three wars among the white races of Europe and America, besides the siege of Paris and the Communists by their own countrymen under M. Thiers, President of the Republic, and Marshal M'Mahon, followed in 1877-8 by a war between Russia and Turkey. The enormous loss of life and wealth, the terrible sufferings of such a vast number of able-bodied men and those dependent on them, and the severe privations of non-combatants have had no little to do with the growth of socialism, the desire for "peace at any price", and a strong opposition to a growing "Imperialism" here and

in America. How much our country owes to the wise and humane guidance of Queen Victoria and Edward VII, and such able and far-sighted statesmen as Gladstone, Beaconsfield, and Salisbury only future historians can rightly estimate.

Britain.—We may now turn again to our own country, which with Prussia was most instrumental in crushing the first Napoleon. The French Revolution had its influence on the politics of Great Britain. The first great Reform Bill of 1832 did away with the rotten boroughs and greatly improved the representation of the people. The Emancipation of the Roman Catholics (and later of the Jews), the Repeal of the Corn Laws, and adoption of Free Trade, followed in due time by two great measures of reform, introduced one by Gladstone and the other by Disraeli, have with various minor measures designed to benefit the people, effected a veritable but peaceful revolution in a democratic direction. The reign of Queen Victoria (1837–1901) outshines all other reigns of modern times in this or any other country for the rapid progress of commerce, manufactures, scientific discoveries useful to the nation, and the enormous extension of the Empire. With the exception of the Crimean War, the Indian Mutiny, and the Egyptian and South African Wars this has been accomplished with only those small frontier wars which must inevitably accompany so great an absorption of other lands and peoples. But the greatest expansion of the English-speaking parts of the Empire has taken place in Australia, New Zealand, and Canada without a blow being struck. How long we shall be able to enjoy this peaceful possession of so great a portion of the world remains to be seen. The Irish and Eastern questions are ever with us, and India and China both give occasional cause for anxiety. The success with which Japan pushed back the Russians from the Pacific, and the rapidity with which she has acquired all the resources of a modern nation and taken her place among the great empires of the world make us wonder whether the great struggle between the White, Yellow, and Black Races, so often foretold, may not be nearer than we like to think, while the unsettled politics of many of the older

nations warn us that the Romance of Man is by no means ended, and that the fate of nations is now, as heretofore, in the hands of God, and the future of the world is still beyond the foresight of man.

It is difficult to pick out the most prominent among the crowd of men of pen and pencil and of science, who lived during the Hanoverian Period of our English history, but I have appended a considerable list below. It will be seen that I have not gone beyond the year 1850. Those later in the nineteenth century we must leave for posterity to judge. From among the many writers, artists, and men of science of the late century we know not whose names will survive, as precious specimens of ore or shell on the sands, to be found as lasting treasures on the shore of time. That the names of Tennyson, Browning, Turner, Landseer, and Lord Leighton will be there we cannot doubt, but beyond that we shall not venture.

LIST OF LATER MEN OF MARK

	A.D.		A.D.
Addison - - - <i>died</i>	1719	Adam Smith - - <i>died</i>	1790
Prior - - - "	1721	Benjamin Franklin "	1790
Wren - - - "	1723	Mozart - - - "	1791
Newton - - - "	1727	Mirabeau - - - "	1791
Defoe - - - "	1731	Reynolds - - - "	1792
Massillon - - - "	1742	Gibbon - - - "	1794
Pope - - - "	1744	Wedgwood - - - "	1795
Swift - - - "	1745	Cowper - - - "	1800
Thomson - - - "	1748	Kant - - - "	1804
Bach - - - "	1750	Schiller - - - "	1805
Butler - - - "	1752	Haydn - - - "	1809
Fielding - - - "	1754	West - - - "	1820
Montesquieu - - - "	1755	Keats - - - "	1821
Handel - - - "	1759	Canova - - - "	1822
Richardson - - - "	1761	Shelley - - - "	1822
Hogarth - - - "	1764	Byron - - - "	1824
Sterne - - - "	1768	David - - - "	1825
Gray - - - "	1771	Flaxman - - - "	1826
Smollett - - - "	1771	Weber - - - "	1826
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